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DOCUMENTS AND NOTES

A CENTURY OF ITALIAN ECONOMY

THE AGRICULTURAL CONFERENCE

THE ITALIAN STEEL INDUSTRY

ROME
PRESIDENCY OF THE COUNCIL OF MINISTERS OF THE ITALIAN REPUBLIC
INFORMATION OFFICE

Translator: RICHARD J. DODGE

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Editor:
Gastone Silvano Spinetti

Editorial and
Administrative Offices:
Via Liguria, 7 - Roma
Tel. 489.171

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ITALIAN TRADE RELATIONS WITH THE EMERGING COUNTRIES

Geographical Distribution and Current Volume

The Italian Institute of Economic Surveys has drafted a lengthy report on Italian trade with a particular group of states that are commonly called « the emerging countries ».

The countries cover an area of approximately 82,234,000 square kilometres, about 60.8% of dry land, the Antarctic excluded. Their populations are estimated at 1,322 million and this corresponds to about 47.2% of the world's inhabitants, the density being 16.1 per sq.km. According to the official list of the O.E.E.C., the emerging countries, which will be grouped under continents during this report, are as follows:

EUROPE - Greece, Yugoslavia, Spain, Turkey, Cyprus and the British dependencies of Gibralta and Malta;

ASIA - all countries with the exception of Japan and the peoples' democracies;

AFRICA - all countries with the exception of South Africa;

AMERICA - all countries with the exception of the United States and Canada;

OCEANIA - British, French and Dutch dependencies.

Generally speaking, the ratio between area, population and trade of Italy and the emerging countries, corresponds to the figures in Table I.

The European states cover only about 2% of the total area of the emerging countries but account for 6% of the population. They contribute about 12% of Italian imports from such countries and absorb about 25% of exports.

It should be noted that exports are more equally divided among the various geographical areas (Oceania excluded) while imports closely follow the percentage distribution of the population. In particular, during the eight year period from 1953 to 1960, it will be noted that Italy has imported goods equal to an average of 500 lire per inhabitant of the countries under consideration, although this figure changes to 1,000 lire for the European states and 375 lire for the Asian states. Exports reveal an average of 350 lire with 1,430 lire for Europe and 142 lire for Asia. It may be said, therefore, that Asia does not represent the market that might be presumed from the population density.

Table I - Trade Exchange between Italy and the Emerging Countries 1953-1960

Continent	Area		Population		Italian Imports		Italian Exports		Imports per inhab.		Exports per inhab.	
	1,000 sq.km.	%	1,000 inhabs.	%	million lire (a)	%	million lire (a)	%	Lire	index no. (b)	lire	index no. (c)
Europe	1,661	2.0	80,166	6.1	75,564	11.7	114,913	24.7	942.6	193	1,433.4	407
Asia	31,291	38.1	821,013	62.1	307,825	47.8	117,038	25.1	374.9	77	412.6	40
Africa	28,276	34.4	221,113	16.7	126,530	19.6	100,089	21.5	572.2	117	452.7	129
America	20,504	24.9	197,335	14.9	134,725	20.9	133,362	28.7	682.7	140	750.8	213
Oceana	502	0.6	2,234	0.2	131	,,,	111	,,,	58.6	12	49.7	14
Total ...	82,234	*100.0*	1,321,861	*100.0*	644,775	*100.0*	465,513	*100.0*	487.8	100	362.2	100

(a) Average values in current lire. — (b) Base: average imports per inhab. — 100. — (c) Base: average exports per inhab. — .

General Import Trends

Italian imports have been in direct measure to the rhythm of development in productivity and the various economic phases.

Indices relative to the emerging countries, other nations and the general total for imports are constant and marked changes only occurred in 1960 when the expansion in imports from the E.E.C. countries and the United States of America raised the index for the group known as « *other countries* ». This figure rose to an extent that brought it above that for the emerging countries in spite of the fact that imports from the latter had expanded by virtue of the excellent Italian economic situation. The general trend during the first European phase (1953 and 1954) was fairly stationary. A recovery was noted in 1955 and the following year (second European phase). The fall in the index that occurred in 1958 was due to a contraction in world prices which continued in 1959. A final and lasting jump was apparent in 1960.

Imports from the emerging countries are not, generally speaking, of a wide variety and the items offered reflect high specialization. For example, three quarters of the imports from Asia consist of oil, while two thirds from America, and half from Africa and Europe consist of agricultural products. Imports from Asia were heavily influenced by the closing of the Suez Canal in 1958 and there was a consequent rise in prices and a contraction in demand that did not expand sufficiently even after prices reached normal levels again. As far as other continents are concerned, excellent trends in agricultural and livestock production in 1954 and 1958 were countered by a drop in imports, with the exception of Africa which

showed no signs of slowing down. European progress in 1960 was due to imports of meat and tobacco and expansion in income from, and purchase of, one product from but one country — olive oil from Spain.

General Export Trends

The general tendency of imports from emerging countries to coincide with those from other countries and the impossibility of following the latter in the event of sudden expansion, is also evident in exports, although on a larger scale.

Between 1953 and 1958, exports to emerging countries followed the same flow as those to other nations. But, in 1959, the sudden increase in exports to the latter was flanked by a contraction in those to the former. This was a situation that arose as a result of the situation created with liberalization of trade exchange and multilateral payments underwritten and effected within the O.E.E.C. There was also the question of the institution of the E.E.C. This resulted in a position of privelege being created for trade exchange between Italy and the chief European states and this, logically, also led to an increased volume of exports from Italy to these same

Table II - Geographical Distribution of Italian Trade with Emerging Countries (*million lire*)

Geographical Area	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960
				IMPORTS				
Europe	65,724	48,204	63,192	79,892	74,266	60,214	76,448	136,568
Asia	233,625	261,650	283,568	328,160	363,231	331,076	307,394	353,896
Africa	93,090	99,699	109,269	133,478	126,560	124,348	155,128	170,671
America	106,291	94,269	117,833	135,567	158,404	135,709	145,859	183,869
Oceana	236	150	94	72	65	54	50	329
Emerging countries	498,966	503,972	573,956	677,169	722,526	651,401	684,879	845,333
Other countries	1,013,720	1,020,467	1,120,672	1,305,879	1,573,480	1,358,447	1,420,460	2,105,601
Total	1,512,686	1,524,439	1,694,628	1,984,048	2,296,006	2,009,848	2,105,339	2,950,934
				EXPORTS				
Europe	95,706	89,752	111,864	99,905	145,789	116,190	109,259	150,838
Asia	99,020	88,226	84,107	133,696	128,116	138,441	107,854	156,847
Africa	76,270	83,128	88,178	89,385	1.0,719	116,302	112,215	124,513
America	71,383	99,353	119,363	121,620	149,172	172,381	161,182	172,442
Oceana	60	38	55	61	158	173	129	211
Emerging countries	342,439	360,497	403,567	444,667	533,954	543,487	490,639	604,852
Other countries	599,350	663,4 2	756,750	896,233	,061,182	1,067,180	1,329,882	1,676,831
Total	941,789	1,023,909	1,160,317	1,340,900	1,595,136	1,610,667	1,820,521	2,280,983

nations. In fact, examining exports to the member states of the E.E.C., it will be seen that they amounted to 194 milliard lire in 1953, a little more than half of those to the emerging countries. In 1960, however, they had reached 674 milliard lire, against 605 milliard for the emerging countries. An increase of 250% for the former is accompanied by a rise of 75% for the latter. However, expansion was noted in the case of a number of emerging countries in 1960 although the index remained about one third below that for other nations.

In making a more detailed examination of the geographical areas, it should not be forgotten that, in Latin America, there are certain countries which, although only now passing through a development stage, cannot be considered poor as a result of high income and marked purchasing power. There are large communities of Italian origin in such countries that show a preference for the Italian market and exports to Latin America consist of large quantities of products of the metal-mechanical industry (75%). The European states absorb about one third of durable goods, the remaining two thirds consisting of petroleum and chemical and textile products. The Asian countries purchase machinery and textile goods while Africa needs consumer foods (food products and textiles) and such items as fertilizers.

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A CENTURY OF ITALIAN ECONOMY

One hundred years ago, in 1861, the first democratic and representative Italian Parliament met to proclaim the Kingdom of Italy, with Rome as its obvious capital.

It was the first time after many centuries that Italy was welded into a single territorial, political, economic and administrative entity. Italy reached this point several centuries later than other European countries.

This is something which must not be overlooked in considering our economic system; on one side it explains the flourishing, even today, of so much initiative, and, on the other, the persistence of a certain lack of equilibrium which gives rise to such serious social and economic problems in our times.

At the moment of unification it was not realized what a handicap the delay there had been in reaching unity would represent for economic development. On the wave of enthusiasm that accompanied it, those who had worked and striven for unity saw it as the beginning of a second Renaissance in Italy.

The Economic Situation of the Country in 1861

What actually was the situation of the country in 1861, or rather a few years later, when unification was completed?

The territorial area was not much different from that of today. It is a land that is not particularly fertile on account of the high percentage of mountainous areas and the vast stretches of arid country. The Apennine Range, which runs from north to south throughout the whole of Italy, seems to become wider as the peninsula narrows down in its southern part.

One can quote G. Fortunato who said: « If you look at a geological map of Italy, the whole of the Apennines from the Ligurian to the Ionian sea has a double colouring; in the central structure, limestone from the Secondary era, and on the flanks clay and marl from the Tertiary. But there is this difference, that the clay and marl soils, in their extraordinary number of varieties, predominate in the south » (1).

The present article is based on a lecture delivered at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston, on May 16, 1961.

(1)G. Fortunato: *Povertà naturale del Mezzogiorno*, in « Antologia della questione meridionale », Bruno Caizzi, Milan, 1950, page 153.

In addition to this, there was a striking lack of natural resources, although the Alpine glaciers were to become valuable later in producing hydroelectric power.

On land of this kind there lived a population that was already comparatively dense — some 230 inhabitants to the square mile — and moreover, this population was increasing rapidly.

It was a backward population, also from a cultural point of view; the 1861 census brought to light the fact that as many as 75% of the people were illiterate.

More than half this population was employed in agriculture which, at that time, accounted for about 60% of the national production. But it was often a struggling type of agriculture since the poor fertility of the soil, together with the density of the population, drove the farmers more and more to cultivate marginal lands, which a competent judge would have left to their natural destinations as woods or pastures.

Industry, the greater part of which was still in the stage of handicrafts and small industries, produced less than a fifth of the national output and was often extremely weak since it had developed artificially under the shelter of the protective customs policies of the preexisting small states. Even in the most progressive parts of Italy, Piedmont and Lombardy, practically the only industries were those for the processing of agricultural products. To the difficult initial conditions the fact must be added that the regions forming the new nation were characterized by a remarkable lack of economic homogeneity.

There were some regions in the north which, for that period, were economically advanced and held a traditional place, on account of their greographical situation and political history, in the economic life of Europe to which they were linked by trade, means of communication and mutual interests. These were regions which had a sufficient degree of what we today call « infrastructure », together with a bureaucratic organization and a relatively enterprising attitude. In the centre and south, however, with a few exceptions, the regions were less economically developed and, to a certain point, cut off from European economic life.

The geographical conformation of the country was another factor which contributed to the century-old southern inertia. This is illustrated by the fact that, out of 1,358 miles of railroads, only 78 miles were in the south. Moreover, the policy adopted by the rulers of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies was static. Colletta wrote: « There were few public works; the only new buildings were convents, churches, other religious edifices or decorative monuments, works

of art were few and indifferent, there was but one road — the one to Rome. Sea trade was insignificant and overland trade non-existent; rivers were overflowing, woods growing into wild forests, the agriculture was primitive, pasturing nomadic and the people impoverished » (1).

Time had brought about the decadence of what had once been the flourishing Greek colonies, the rich Roman cities, the busiest ports of the Mediterranean. There were deep reasons for this, which were connected with the broad lines of development of nations. Centuries of neglect by the successive governments in power and political mistakes perpetuated the spiral of poverty.

There was a lack of competent commercial leadership, of infra-structure and of capital in these regions; a business class was lacking. In other words, the basis for the « industrial revolution » which was sweeping over the whole of Europe, was missing.

Thus vanished the high hopes based on the actual or supposed natural wealth of the south. It has been said, and with reason, that (2): « The first contacts between the civilizations of the north and the south, the first experiences of a common Government aroused suspicion and rekindled the ancient provincial spirit of Italians on both sides; they had begun to talk again of two Italies that were economically and spiritually different and they recalled one of Cavour's last sayings that " to make the north and the south of Italy come together was a tougher proposition than to deal with the Austrians " ».

Features of the Italian Economy during the first forty years of the new Kingdom

In view of the predominant economic factors which characterized the Italian system at the time of unification, we can realize that the contemporary efforts were inadequate to bridge the gap between the different economic structures of regions which until then, had been politically separate.

Based on such a weak structure, and essentially agricultural as it was, the Italian economy only yielded a per capita income equivalent to a third of that obtained in 1960.

About three fifths of that income came from agriculture, whereas only two fifths were provided by industry and other activities. But even of the part contributed by industry, more than 70% came from the processing of agricultural and food products and was still linked to agricultural production.

(1) Pietro Colletta: *Storia del Reame di Napoli*, Vol. 1.
(2) Bruno Caizzi: *Antologia della questione meridionale*, Milan, 1960, page 17.

Features of Italian Economy from 1861 to 1865

1. *Private enterprise production (in percentages)*

— Agriculture	56.6
— Industry	20.6
— Other activities	22.8

2. *Share of the various industries in the total production (in percentages)*

— Mining, oil, minerals, etc.	2.6
— Agricultural, foodstuffs	72.2
— Other manufactures	12.8
— Construction	11.9
— Electricity, gas and water	0.5

3. *Utilization of available resources for home use (in percentages)*

— Consumer goods	90.3
— Investments	9.7

4. *Composition of private consumption (in percentages)*

— Foodstuffs	52.1
— Beverages	14.2
— Tobacco	2.0
— Other goods	17.8
— Housing and water	6.3
— Other utilities	7.6

5. *Composition of long-term investments (in percentages)*

— Housing	18.1
— Public works	30.7
— Plants and equipment	51.2

Such a low rate of income could only satisfy the demand for primary necessities. The average consumption rate was very high and more than 90% of the available resources had to be spent on consumer goods. In spite of this, the average Italian of those days was not able to spend on consumer goods more than half of what he can spend today. With such a low income it is truly admirable that the sense of frugality which existed in those days permitted any savings at all. The 10% of the available resources that were invested show the efforts made in this period to improve the structure of the country and provide it with the essential infrastructure. Out of this 10% actually more than half was allotted to investments in buildings.

This was the situation of the Italian economic system, at the moment of political unification.

The political and administrative problems which the new state had to face were such as to threaten and to undermine the unity which had been so difficult to achieve and there is no doubt that the ability of those responsible for the public administration was put to a severe test.

As to the economic angle, the figures and the points mentioned above make clear the basic influence of these starting conditions on the future development of our economy.

The most impelling economic problem was first of all the need to create the infrastructure necessary for the improvement of environmental conditions and for bringing the different regions closer together.

This meant investments, which were a burden to public finances and which would only give a deferred yield.

The immediate effects on the productive activity of the country were slight. The construction of an organic and efficient rail-network — the first necessary measure for linking up the different regions — in spite of the high hopes it had aroused, did not lead to immediate benefits in the economic field.

The rolling stock and the railroad material had to be brought almost entirely from abroad because of the lack of adequate engineering and steel industries. The impetus that railroad construction gave to the formation of engineering and steel industries in Italy was much smaller than elsewhere, even though some factories were opened in Genoa and Milan, which had their original « raison d'être » in the supply of railroad cars.

Although there were no immediate benefits, there were immediate difficulties. The level of savings in Italy was low at that time and the necessary funds had to be obtained from foreign capital. Within a few years after unification the public debt rose from 1,860 to 4,600 millions, of which more than one third was held abroad.

Thus the Italian economy became deeply involved in the international money market with the consequence that the « quotations of Government securities were liable to be affected by the strong fluctuations of the big international markets with a resulting threat to the Government credit » (1).

Consequently the crises on the London and Paris markets in 1865 and 1866 had strong repercussions in Italy. The sluggish internal situation required heavy public spending and the international crises

(1) G. Luzzato: *Storia economica dell'età moderna e contemporanea.* Parte II: L'età contemporanea, CEDAM, Padua, 1958, page 379.

brought the new state to the brink of bankruptcy. The introduction of a managed currency — almost inconceivable in those days — kept this danger at bay, but at the same time frightened off foreign capital.

It was only after several years that an equilibrium was reached in public finance. But the first efforts towards the process of industrialization had been suffocated by the agricultural crisis and the fall in international prices.

Trade difficulties with France, resulting from the application of the new customs tariffs and the 1892 international crisis were further obstacles to the progress of an economic set-up as weak as Italy's was in those days. It was especially the international crisis of 1892 that had serious repercussions in the country, so much so that the years between 1890 and 1893 have been called the black years of Italian economy.

So in the first forty years of its life, the Italian economic system had to struggle against all kinds of difficulties, remaining in a position of more or less static equilibrium on a pre-industrial and underdeveloped level.

The increasing population — and the increase was fairly high, equivalent to an average of about 0.66% per year — found no outlet in productive activity, except at the price of lowering the productivity itself for lack of capital.

There were certain investment programmes, particularly in building — aided by credit facilities which represented some danger to the internal monetary stability — and in industrial plants which, however, could only be put up in areas which were favoured geographically and had to be concentrated around the « pôles de croissance » (centre of growth). And the area having these favourable

MAIN DATA COVERING THE 1861-1897 PERIOD

	1861	1897	Average annual percentage increase
1) Gross national product	49,563	63,815	+ 0.71
Gross national product per capita	1,903	1,934	+ 0.04
2) Consumption	48,381	59,077	+ 0.56
Consumption per capita	1,858	1,790	— 0.10
3) Gross investment	3,017	3,077	+ 0.05
4) Ratio of consumption to available resources (that is, consumption investment) (over the whole period)	0.91		
5) Ratio of consumption increase to available resources increase (over the whole period)	0 83		
6) Popolation (in thousands)	26,043	32,994	+ 0.66

N. B. - The data concerning the national product are expressed in millions of 1938 lire; the per capita values in 1938 lire.

characteristics was that between Genoa, Turin and Milan, on account of the easier and more frequent contacts with the economically and industrially more developed countries.

To sum up, little progress was seen in the new Italy between 1861 and 1897. Production hardly kept up with the increase in population. Admittedly the national income rose by a third, but the increase was offset by the growing population so that the per capita income remained at the same level for some 40 years. Consumption and investment did not show any increase and the average rate of consumption was over 90% during this period. The marginal propensity to investment did not reach more than about 15%.

The desire to reach improvement and a balance between the different regions of the country, politically united but economically divided, could not immediately be translated into concrete action. The generous proposals advanced by so many people remained only noble intentions and were not followed by concrete action for the solution of the grave problems which the Italian economy had to face.

But it was during these years that the foundations were laid for future progress, a progress which was indubitably linked to the political, juridical and administrative organization of the State (1), on which every free economy must be based.

Italian Economy until the Outbreak of World War Two

It was only at the beginning of the new century that the foundations, so laboriously laid during the previous forty years, permitted the first steps to be taken on the road of economic development.

This development was not without setbacks and was not very marked. It was interrupted by World War One. Then, following the war, Fascism progressively isolated the country, estranging it from the rest of the world.

But this period (1897-1939) is clearly different from the previous one on account of the appreciable progress in employment, income, consumption and investments.

It can be said that the original stimulus came from abroad, as a consequence of the favourable phase of the European trade cycle at the turn of the century.

The first steel and engineering plants were built in Tuscany in 1902, where for the first time iron and steel products were obtained

(1) Among the most important measures to be recalled, are: the 1865 Civil Code provisions, granting equality to all citizens before the law; the Coppino law, providing for compulsory elementary education; the extention of suffrage to a large part of the population, etc.

from the direct processing of ferrous material and not of scrap iron. The engineering industries that had formerly concentrated on supplies for the Government, began to manufacture machine tools. FIAT was successful in selling its cars abroad. The chemical industry in connection with agriculture, expanded the production of fertilizers. Within a few years the production of electric power rose to 3 thousand million Kwh; iron production to one million tons; the foreign trade figures were doubled. The lira held firm, being quoted at par or even above harder gold curriencies.

This general process of expansion was interrupted by World War One and the subsequent period of isolation and autarchy that Fascism imposed on Italy.

Prices rose inside the country and the cost of living went up. Abroad the value of the lira dropped alarmingly. The foreign trade deficit was no longer balanced by revenues from tourism and the remittances of emigrants. The illusion of economic self-sufficiency could but give a start to enterprises that were only able to survive under a highly protective policy.

Certainly there was progress, but it was more in the heavy industries than in industries producing consumer goods. This again favoured the northern centers and accentuated the famous « dualism » which had existed at the time of unification and which a more cautious economic policy during that period might have mitigated.

The second period of Italy's economic history, including the years up to the outbreak of World War Two, generally shows much greater progress than the first forty years after the unification.

Even if late in comparison with other European countries, the industrialization of our country began to expand and the activity of our manufacturing industries increased by three and a half times. Technical progress enabled wide-scale reclamation projects to be carried out and led to considerable improvements in agricultural methods, particularly in the livestock sector; in these forty years grain, vegetable and fruit production was doubled. Road transport was developed with the increase of motorization. The merchant fleet grew, rising from an overall gross tonnage of less than 800 thousand tons (of which about 500 thousand under sail) to more than two million tons, all power-propelled.

To sum up, from 1897 to 1939, the gross national product increased by 2.2% per year and the per capita product increased by 1.2% per year; but the most outstanding was the increase in investments, the rate of which rose on an average by 5.9% per year.

The ratio of consumption to available resources dropped, during this period, from 0.91 to 0.86; however, the ratio of consumption

MAIN DATA COVERING THE 1897-1939 PERIOD

	1897	1939	Average annual percentage increase
1) Gross national product	63,815	162,300	+ 2.25
Gross national product per capita	1,934	3,732	+ 1.57
2) Consumption	59,077	128,578	+ 1.87
Consumption per capita	1,790	2,956	+ 1.20
3) Gross investments	3,077	34,090	+ 5.89
4) Ratio of consumption to available resource (that is, consumption investment) (over the whole period)	0.86		
5) Ratio of consumption increase to available resources increase (over the whole period)	0.74		
6) Population (in thousands)	32,994	43,493	+ 0.66

N. B. - The overall national product and its items are expressed in millions of 1938 lire, the per capita values in 1938 lire.

increase to available resources increase rose from an average of 0.15 to an average of 0.26.

As can be seen, this was a period of development even though modest, and showing certain imbalances in some sectors and areas. There was also, during the last years of this period, an abnormal expansion of the productive system, protected by a policy of autarchy and cut off from technical progress, in view of a war which was to prove disastrous.

War Consequences and Reconstruction of the Country

After World War Two, the national wealth was reduced by more than one-third on account of destruction, damage, looting, etc. More than 3 million housing units were destroyed or rendered uninhabitable. The gross tonnage of the merchant marine fell from 3.4 million to little more than 400 thousand tons; a fifth of the factories and industrial plants were destroyed or severely damaged.

Income decreased to less than half that of 1939. Private consumption was also reduced by about half and dropped to levels which were lower than those of the first year after unification. Investments were practically non-existent.

The entire political and administrative system was disorganized and the first Democratic Goverments at once put their shoulders to the wheel to bring back order and, with it, the normalization of political and administrative life, to enable Italy to complete the desired economic unification.

There had been progress in the past and there is no doubt that during the two stages of Italian economic history described above

one can see a certain development, particularly during the second stage. But the initial situation retarded this development and, moreover, the pre-war mistakes and the consequences of the war compromised economic progress so much that it seemed impossible to gather enough forces for another drive.

The relative consolidation and subsequent moderate degree of development reached during the first eighty years after Italian unity, had done nothing towards the solution of the basic problem of our economy, that of the « dualism » which resulted in the coexistence of the backward, under-developed areas of our country with others that had achieved a progressive industrial level.

When post-war reconstruction was completed, and the pre-war income level had been reached again, at the beginning of the fifties, the time finally seemed to have come to face the structural problems of the country.

Before dealing with the results of this period, one should emphasize the fact that although they were due to the efforts and ability of all economic classes and especially to the traditional virtues of tenacity, and industriousness of the Italian people, a considerable proportion of the success must objectively be credited to the coherence with which the lines of economic policy were laid down and followed from the end of the war onwards by all the democratic Governments which have led Italy.

At the time various long-range programmes were drawn up, covering a considerable number of years and heavily financed with respect to the country's resources. These programmes covered public works, housing and land reform, and included organically planned schemes for agriculture and for some industrial sectors in order to prepare them for the demanding task of meeting the competition of the international markets.

This was the period when the efforts already made to link the Italian economic system more closely to world economic were increased by freeing trade and by every possible form of international cooperation.

More than any other, this was the time when the Italian Government, realistically admitting the fact that a widespread development of the economically backward areas could not be achieved without substantial outside support, launched the ten year plan for the development of the South.

In this way the « Cassa per il Mezzogiorno » was born, destined to intervene decisively in the southern regions, to shake them out of centuries of inertia, to set up the necessary infrastructures, to lay the foundations for business economy and for the industrialization of

areas which had remained at a standstill with elementary ways of life and primitive systems of production and trade. The interest aroused in international circles by the Cassa and the loans granted to it by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development are proof of the confidence it inspired.

At this period, a great Italian, Ezio Vanoni, gave Italy the « Scheme for the Development of Employment and Income », which had and continues to have a powerful influence on the economic policy of our country.

This is a document which rationally considers the basic economic and social problems and aspirations of the Italian people; it analyses our economic structure thoroughly in its essential components and it estimates, with reasonable approximation, the effort necessary to overcome those aspects of our system which were earlier defined as « dualistic ».

The « Vanoni Scheme » was never a « plan » intended to impose a rigid programme on future productive activity. Italy is a country with a free — not a planned — economy. It is a scientific document aiming to show that orderly productive development and the development of the backward areas are goals that can be attained, not by miracles, but through a spontaneous co-ordinated and intelligent effort on the part of all productive groups.

Results were soon evident. In the course of ten years, with some inevitable ups and downs due to business fluctuations — since Italy, like all other countries, has experienced three short recessions during this period — the national per capita product increased by 60%, in spite of a simultaneous increase of 0.8% in the population. On the whole, the real gross national product has risen at an average rate or 5.7% per year since 1950.

Obviously this development depends on a very considerable expansion of investments which, year after year, absorb a progressively growing proportion of the available internal resources. The ratio of investments to available resources rose from 18.9 in 1950 to 24.8 in 1960. Not less than a third of the additional available resources were allocated to investments.

Nevertheless consumption had not suffered; nor could it have, in a country like Italy where consumption is very restricted among large parts of the population. Actually during this last decade, the per capita expenditure for private consumption — at constant prices — has risen by 3.5% per annum (1).

(1) As the statistics on the national product at constant prices (1954) are not yet available, some of the years' increases have been calculated on the basis of the 1950-1959 period.

MAIN DATA COVERING THE 1950-1960 PERIOD

	1950	1960	Average annual percentage increase
1) Gross national product	9,693	16,803	+ 5.7
Gross national product per capita	205.9	330.7	+ 4.9
2) Consumption	7,974	12,517	+ 4.6
Consumption per capita	169.4	246.3	+ 3.8
3) Gross investments	1,862	4,279	+ 8.7
4) Ratio of consumption to available resources (that is, consumption investment) (over the whole period)	0.78		
5) Ratio of consumption increase to available resources increase (over the whole period)	0.65		
6) Population (in thousands)	47,081	50,816	+ 0.8

N. B. - The overall national product and its items are expressed in milliards of 1954 lire; the per capita values in thousands of 1954 lire.

Consumption is changing so as to be more in line with modern requirements. An a natural result of the quantitative increase, there is also a definite improvement in quality.

While the average annual rate of increase in food consumption was equal to 3.8%, the expenditure, at constant prices, for the purchase of private means of transport, rose by 9.5% per year during the last ten years; expenses for operating private cars went up by 18.3%; expenses for household articles — including electric appliances — increased by 8.5%.

New consumer habits, new customs and needs now constitute in our country — as happened much earlier in other countries — one of the dynamic forces of economic progress, a force on which we obviously count in drawing up the development plans for our industries.

During this period of such concentrated economic expansion, the Italian productive structure has also been changing rapidly. The primary sector, the development of which cannot be other than slow, has progressed at a rate of 3.47% and in 1960 it constituted a mere 19.16% of the national product. Industry, which develops at an average rate of 9.12%, accounted for 48.32%.

Today we can say without hesitation that Italy although it started off late on the road to industrialization, is rapidly gaining ground and is advancing towards the standard of a typically industrial economy.

We can see, in particular, the general progress of the Italian industries, no longer confined to the traditional textile and foodstuff sectors, but branching out into the chemical, metallurgic and mechanical fields.

Economic budget

Resources and uses of availabilities, at constant prices

Period	Resources					Uses							
						Consumption			Gross investments				
	Net national product	Depreciation	Gross national product	Net Imports	Total	Private	Public	Total	Fixed	Inventory changes	Total	Net Exports	Total
	Million lire												
1861–65	48,845	2,243	51,088	2,023	53,111	46,940	2,039	48,979	3,708	424	4,132	—	53,111
1866–70	51,136	2,462	53,598	868	54,466	47,493	2,192	49,685	3,766	1,015	4,781	—	54,466
1871–75	53,403	2,741	56,144	50	56,194	49,655	1,867	51,522	3,864	808	4,672	—	56,194
1876–80	55,877	2,890	58,767	—	58,767	52,142	1,722	53,864	4,947	— 167	4,780	123	58,767
1881–85	56,665	3,213	59,878	290	60,168	52,425	1,819	54,244	6,471	— 547	5,924	—	60,168
1886–90	58,600	3,628	62,228	1,542	63,770	54,153	2,243	56,396	7,219	155	7,374	—	63,770
1891–95	60,674	3,746	64,420	—	64,420	55,810	2,480	58,290	5,709	— 45	5,664	466	64,420
1896–900	64,378	3,932	68,310	—	68,310	57,952	2,692	60,644	6,018	179	6,197	1,469	68,310
1901–05	74,500	4,876	79,376	—	79,376	64,284	2,666	66,950	8,181	1,719	9,900	2,526	79,376
1906–10	84,589	6,074	90,663	24	90,687	73,071	2,928	75,999	13,848	840	14,688	—	90,687
1911–15	92,340	7,206	99,546	1,026	100,572	79,468	7,227	86,695	13,553	324	13,877	—	100,572
1916–20	91,828	7,117	98,945	11,619	110,564	83,998	21,592	105,590	7,901	— 2,927	4,974	—	110,564
1921–25	105,395	8,306	113,701	2,726	116,427	92,133	7,416	99,549	15,788	1,090	16,878	—	116,427
1926–30	118,442	10,939	129,381	2,490	131,871	102,258	7,191	109,449	22,533	— 111	22,422	—	131,871
1931–35	120,832	12,283	133,115	984	134,099	103,188	10,405	113,593	20,764	— 258	20,506	—	134,099
1936–40	137,662	15,076	152,738	1,276	154,014	108,829	15,950	124,779	28,229	1,006	29,235	—	154,014
1941–45	108,481	10,621	119,102	2,162	121,264	84,459	23,415	107,874	17,694	— 4,304	13,390	—	121,264
1946–50	136,217	11,983	148,200	5,341	153,541	110,249	13,733	123,982	26,742	2,817	29,559	—	153,541
1951–55	181,109	17,274	198,383	3,808	202,191	146,219	16,318	162,537	37,928	1,726	39,654	—	202,191
1956–60	235,748	23,008	258,756	—	258,756	179,735	20,176	199,911	54,569	3,156	57,725	1,120	258,756
	Milliard lire (1)												
1951–55	10,347	1,037	11,384	225	11,609	8,360	876	9,236	2,282	91	2,373	—	11,609
1956–60	13,513	1,431	14,926	—	14,926	10,262	1,098	11,360	3,380	103	3,510	56	14,926

(1) The word milliard refers to the European general system of numeration and is equivalent to the american "Billion". 1 Milliard = 1.000.000.000.

Composition of available resources, for domestic uses, of private consumption, and gross fixed investments (*percentages*)

PERIOD	Available resources for domestic use					Private consumption							Fixed total investiments			
	Consumption			Gross Invest-ments	Total	Goods				Services		Total	Housing	Public Works	Plant and equip-ment, etc.	Total
	Private	Public	Total			Food	Beve-rages	Tobacco	Other Goods	House rents and water	Other Services					
1861–65	85.72	4.55	90.27	9.73	100	52.13	14.20	2.00	17.77	6.33	7.57	100	18.07	30.67	51.26	100
1866–70	85.13	4.51	89.64	10.36	100	50.62	15.50	1.77	17.92	5.87	8.32	100	20.64	24.38	54.98	100
1871–75	86.63	3.66	90.29	9.71	100	52.42	16.06	1.69	16.66	5.11	8.06	100	19.93	22.81	57.26	100
1876–80	86.82	3.86	90.68	9.32	100	52.76	15.76	1.71	15.65	5.76	8.36	100	21.45	15.64	62.91	100
1881–85	83.80	4.26	88.06	11.94	100	47.88	19.39	2.01	15.48	7.12	8.12	100	24.38	22.41	53.21	100
1886–90	83.18	4.89	88.07	11.93	100	47.83	18.88	2.24	14.60	7.80	8.65	100	22.02	27.47	50.51	100
1891–95	85.58	5.22	90.80	9.20	100	46.88	18.47	2.25	14.12	8.20	10.08	100	20.64	25.90	53.46	100
1896–90	84.97	5.02	89.99	10.01	100	46.39	18.98	2.14	13.45	8.49	10.55	100	24.25	12.43	63.32	100
1901–05	81.30	4.46	85.76	14.24	100	49.80	14.80	2.15	13.48	8.50	11.27	100	26.14	10.56	63.30	100
1901–10	78.10	4.07	82.17	17.83	100	50.76	12.64	2.12	15.43	7.72	11.33	100	16.72	7.65	75.63	100
1911–15	76.71	9.02	85.73	14.27	100	51.06	13.05	2.19	12.94	7.87	12.89	100	12.73	12.86	74.41	100
1916–20	76.19	16.33	92.52	7.48	100	48.57	18.41	1.66	18.20	4.04	9.12	100	6.32	12.09	81.59	100
1921–25	76.79	5.94	82.73	17.27	100	49.24	13.63	3.01	19.03	4.84	10.25	100	12.31	11.84	75.85	100
1926–30	76.88	5.10	81.98	18.02	100	49.58	10.44	3.17	18.37	6.46	11.98	100	14.17	9.67	76.16	100
1931–35	75.89	7.58	83.87	16.13	100	47.24	7.49	4.21	15.70	9.75	15.61	100	20.10	15.73	64.17	100
1936–40	70.91	10.25	81.16	18.84	100	45.49	6.74	3.40	19.42	10.30	14.65	100	12.16	9.83	78.01	100
1941–45	83.64	12.20	95.84	4.16	100	60.50	13.45	1.76	11.75	2.60	9.94	100	11.12	13.23	75.65	100
1946–50	72.12	7.87	79.99	20.01	100	51.81	6.93	3.89	22.05	1.10	14.22	100	10.92	14.17	74.91	100
1951–55	71.70	7.60	79.30	20.70	100	47.04	6.31	4.33	22.20	2.31	17.81	100	21.45	13.66	64.89	100
1956–60 (*) .	67.44	9.29	76.73	23.27	100	45.73	6.43	4.44	20.40	3.22	19.78	100	28.22	11.93	59.85	100
1861–97	85.57	4.56	90.13	9.87	100	49.51	17.21	1.99	15.61	6.90	8.78	100	21.70	22.83	55.47	100
1898–940																
(*a*) ,.....	75.45	8.16	83.61	16.39	100	48.14	10.96	3.10	17.81	7.47	12.52	100	14.08	11.31	74.61	100
(*b*)	75.48	7.32	82.80	17.20	100	47.93	10.53	3.21	17.98	7.64	12.71	100	14.33	11.28	74.39	100
1946–60 (*) .																
(*c*)	69.77	8.45	78.22	21.78	100	47.42	6.48	4.30	21.36	2.47	19.97	100	22.98	12.88	64.14	100
(*d*)	69.21	8.59	77.80	22.20	100	46.30	6.37	4.40	21.19	2.82	18.92	100	25.51	12.62	61.87	100

(*) Private Consumption and Gross Fixed Investment composition refer, respectively, to the periods: 1956-59; 1946-59; 1951-59.
(*a*) Including the « war-period »: 1915-18. — (*b*) Excluding the « war-period »: 1915-18. — (*c*) Including the « post-war period »: 1946-50. — (*d*) Excluding the « post-war period »: 1946-50.

CONTRIBUTION OF THE MAJOR SECTORS, BRANCHES, AND GROUPS OF THE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY TO GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT (*in percentages*)

PERIOD	Gross domestic product at factor cost (*)			Gross product of private sector (**)				Gross product of industrial activity (**)					Gross product of tertiary activity (**)				
	Private Sector	Government	Total	Agriculture Forestry and Fishing	Industrial Activity	Tertiary Activity	Total	Mining and Quarrying	Manufacturing	Construction Industry	Electricity, Gas and Water	Total	Transport and Communications	Trade and other services	Credit and Insurance	Buildings	Total
1861–65	94.17	5.83	100	57.73	19.85	22.42	100	2.33	85.08	12.18	.41	100	6.97	66.00	1.15	25.88	100
1866–70	94.38	5.62	100	57.29	19.70	23.01	100	2.95	85.66	10.79	.60	100	8.88	66.51	2.22	22.39	100
1871–75	95.53	4.47	100	57.65	18.90	23.45	100	3.26	85.50	10.50	.74	100	10.37	67.74	2.84	19.05	100
1876–80	95.22	4.78	100	55.56	19.11	25.33	100	3.73	84.04	11.24	.99	100	10.75	65.89	3.24	20.12	100
1881–85	94.66	5.34	100	52.01	20.62	27.37	100	4.53	78.64	15.69	1.14	100	12.49	60.95	4.09	22.47	100
1886–90	94.66	5.34	100	49.81	20.77	29.42	100	3.62	78.55	16.35	1.48	100	13.59	58.08	5.25	23.08	100
1891–95	93.99	6.01	100	50.71	18.94	30.35	100	4.37	79.72	13.50	2.41	100	13.42	57.85	5.22	23.51	100
1896–90	93.87	6.13	100	50.25	19.54	30.21	100	4.66	81.03	11.08	3.23	100	14.22	56.12	5.38	24.28	100
1901–05	93.54	6.46	100	48.76	21.29	29.95	100	4.49	79.72	12.18	3.61	100	15.67	54.86	6.01	23.46	100
1906–10	93.55	6.45	100	44.88	25.10	30.02	100	3.30	82.02	10.67	4.01	100	18.09	54.01	6.97	20.92	100
1911–15	89.46	10.54	100	43.82	25.79	30.39	100	3.11	83.09	9.03	4.77	100	19.24	52.58	7.23	20.68	100
1916–20	83.52	16.48	100	46.67	29.67	23.66	100	2.55	90.94	4.67	1.84	100	15.77	60.11	9.71	14.41	100
1921–25	93.44	6.56	100	40.62	31.10	28.28	100	2.34	85.90	7.92	3.84	100	19.26	58.57	8.70	13.47	100
1926–30	93.88	6.12	100	36.17	31.69	32.14	100	2.73	82.02	8.84	6.41	100	23.45	52.92	7.48	16.15	100
1931–35	90.03	9.97	100	30.06	30.70	39.24	100	2.27	74.85	11.96	10.92	100	19.66	51.62	8.83	19.89	100
1936–40	86.71	13.29	100	29.57	34.23	36.20	100	2.54	80.58	7.94	8.94	100	22.15	48.08	8.23	21.54	100
1941.45	87.48	12.52	100	54.62	22.84	22.54	100	2.43	85.89	6.58	5.10	100	17.59	61.41	10.61	10.39	100
1946–50	91.07	8.93	100	35.80	39.44	24.76	100	2.55	83.70	8.24	5.51	100	24.29	61.42	11.17	3.12	100
1951–55	89.45	10.55	100	27.30	45.77	26.93	100	2.85	78.23	12.19	6.73	100	26.11	54.28	12.82	6.79	100
1956–60	88.32	11.68	100	21.77	47.62	30.61	100	2.95	74.01	16.57	6.47	100	26.28	51.46	13.32	8.94	100
1861–97	94.52	5.48	100	53.41	19.69	26.90	100	3.68	82.10	12.82	1.40	100	11.76	61.76	3.91	22.57	100
1898–940																	
(a) ,.....	90.34	9.66	100	36.53	31.00	32.47	100	2.60	82.04	8.66	6.70	100	20.57	52.94	8.22	18.27	100
(b)	91.06	8.94	100	35.93	31.07	33.00	100	2.60	81.47	8.94	6.99	100	20.74	52.76	8.19	18.31	100
1946–60																	
(c)	89.23	10.77	100	26.35	45.41	28.24	100	2.85	77.07	13.69	6.39	100	25.88	54.12	12.78	7.22	100
(d) ,.....	88.78	11.22	100	24.04	46.86	29.10	100	2.91	75.71	14.80	6.58	100	26.21	52.57	13.12	8.10	100

(*) After adjustment. — (**) Before adjustment.
(*a*) Including the « war-period »: 1915-18. — (*b*) Excluding the « war-period »: 1915-18. — (*c*) Including the « post-war period »: 1946-50. — (*d*) Excluding the « post-war period »: 1946-50.

Moreover, Italy has finally achieved close integration in international trade. Imports of goods and services have, in fact, increased in terms of quantity at the remarkable rate of 8.9% per annum and exports at the even higher rate of 12.1%. The Italian balance of payments, structurally deficient and always a severe handicap to any development policy, has at last been settled and has even shown, at least according to European standards, a relatively consistent surplus.

This is just one more of the many positive results of greater international solidarity, which, having enabled us for some years to import according to our necessities rather than according to our possibilities, has reversed another downward trend and opened the road to a more vigorous development.

Prospects for the Future

The achievements of the last decade are a justifiable source of pride. Unfortunately we cannot yet say that the many problems which caused anguish to our forefathers have all been resolved. But the mere fact of being able to face them in such a different atmosphere, with new outlooks and new instruments, to see them — one might say — change before our eyes, means for us that we are working from a different angle, knowing that their solution is not too far off.

There are still many *unemployed and under-employed* in Italy, although during the last ten years no less than two and a half million new jobs have been created in secondary and tertiary activities. In Italy — and in Europe, which is moving towards full employment — opportunities for work continue to increase. Consequently the problem is no longer to provide assistance for legions of unemployed so that they can survive, but, rather, to prepare and train workers for productive jobs. An always higher degree of specialization is needed and today it is often difficult to find a sufficient number of workers with the necessary qualifications.

To this end a « schooling plan » has been set up; increasing attention is being given to the training of the future workers. The new generation will be able to step out into the world of work under conditions very different from those of previous generations. Even if the goal is still far off, we already know that we can reach it.

In the second place, our *agriculture* is still in a difficult stage, with a surplus of labour and insufficient productivity.

However, today the problem is no longer that of producing enough for the needs of the people. The question is to produce better for the increasingly exacting home and foreign markets so that a farm

population, which is rapidly shrinking, may obtain from its work an income comparable to that of other sectors. Here also is prepared a wide scale plan — « il Piano Verde » (the Green Plan) — and it is hoped that it will lead to a progressive improvement of the situation. However, we can already say that during the past decade, mechanization has been increased fourfold.

In the third place, a great lack of balance still exists in Italy between different regions, between the highly industrialized provinces and the less-developed areas. But more and more of an effort is being made to find a solution. The gap between north and south is no more an abyss; in a world where geographical distances are decreasing, economic gaps are narrowing too; internal population movements increase, the big northern industries move south, capital flows where it is easiest to find other necessary factors of production, first of all labour. For the South of Italy too, the last decade has been one of progress; considering the different starting-points, it has not been possible to make production increase at a greater rate than in the north — no investment is immediately productive, least of all those in infrastructure — but it is encouraging to observe that investments have risen in the south at relatively higher rates than in the north, and that also consumption, in comparison with the north, has increased at a higher rate.

Il could be argued that this increase in consumption may well not be a great success, if not accompanied by a corresponding rise in production in the same regions; but one should not complain about this. For, on the one hand, we consider it a duty of national solidarity to try in every was to smooth out certain exaggerated differences, while, on the other hand, the expanding of southern markets cannot fail to be an incentive for the industrialization of those very regions.

For Italy the « 'fifties » have been the period of most intensive development within the memory of man. A satisfactory decade, not only because of the results achieved, but because during this time Italy has finally been able to begin to solve many of those structural problems, which for a century had been foremost in the minds of the most enlightened Italians.

And this is why one can today look with confidence towards the future of Italian economy. The beginning of the « 'sixties » and the start of the second century of national unity seem in fact destined to open a new era, more dynamic and certainly better than the preceding one. It is going to be a period of intense work so that the results achieved may be consolidated, and the still unsolved problems find their solution; so that the best possible distribution of

national resources may be obtained; so that every Italian of good will may be assured employment and the opportunity to develop his own capacities.

Italy intends to persevere in her policy of development, improving it and integrating it in its various aspects, without abandoning any of the fundamental criteria which have guided it from the very start. These include monetary and financial stability, the encouragement of individual initiative and technical and professional training for all social classes, the destination of a growing ratio of the national income to investments and the overcoming of possible bottlenecks, the increasing of productivity in all directions, the freeing of foreign trade and the participation of the Italian economy in larger markets.

The keystone of the economic and social progress of a country is always to be found in the development of its income, that is to say, in a continuous increase of production. It is not possible to pursue a serious investment and employment policy without having a growing quantity of goods available.

But together with the task of sustaining the dynamic rhythm of general economic expansion with respect to financial stability, today one must bear in mind the need to reach a « qualification » which, characterizing the quantitative elements of income, will enable the economic development to be translated into more concrete terms of equilibrium and social progress.

Although it is true that no substantial social progress in possible without a greater availability of goods brought about by an adequate economic development, it is also true that, when this greater availability of goods has been attained, it must be used to benefit first of all those sectors and areas which, from an economic and human point of view, are most in need of it.

As far as Italy is concerned, the existing lack of equilibrium between the various areas and sectors has to be overcome, and the need arises for a more harmonious distribution of income among the social classes of the country.

Land reform, fiscal reforms, social security reform and other important measures have already made a substantial contribution in this sense; but there is no doubt that, as the income per inhabitant gradually increases, more and more possibilities will be created, and Italy intends to use them in such a way as to realize its ideals. In this same spirit we wish to make our constructive contribution to the less favoured peoples.

THE AGRICULTURAL CONFERENCE

Agricultural and Industrial Income

Over the past ten years Italian income has risen by about half the figure registered for the first century of national unity. It is an impressive feat but industry has expanded much more sharply than agriculture and this has led to the somewhat difficult task of bringing agricultural economy to the level of the more progressive industrial sectors. There are a number of causes that have brought about the present situation, first and foremost being the very structure of Italian agriculture which is based more on local factors and is less open to progress through the availability of durable goods and manpower. Such conditions, which have made agriculture a problem for most governments, are keenly felt in Italy because of a lack of irrigated plains that permit less expensive farming methods and a consequently more profitable management. There is also the structure of farms which are generally of a family nature in Italy and influenced by demographic and hereditary factors that produce changes outside the limits of economic considerations.

Agrarian reform, by splitting the large estates, has greatly eased the trend of changing agriculture from a capitalist to a family form but smallholdings have not been economically productive to any great extent. In fact, expropriation of large estates was essentially an act of social justice that had to be carried out.

The Italian Government has been faced with the question of modifying the size of farms and proposals have been made as follows: introducing a technical, economic and fiscal policy that would provide incentives to farming, increasing productivity, providing farmers with technical aid and rational planning, launching a new price policy, reducing the cost of durable goods, providing loans, ensuring employment in industry for manpower no longer required by agriculture as a result of widespread mechanized farming, and raising the living standards of farm workers.

Such an impressive array of suggestions could not be faced and an organic development plan drafted without careful study in collaboration with exponents of the interested parties, particularly in view of the fact that agriculture is a sector in which the State must encourage private enterprise and all new ideas must be brought into being only after careful examination with those who are to be responsible for their execution.

Table I - Principal Agricultural and livestock products - 1936-1939 and 1957-1960

PRODUCT	Average 1939/39 Thousand quintals	Average 1957/60	
		Thousand quintals	Index (1936-1939 = 100)
1. Vegetable Products			
a) *Cereals:*			
Wheat	75,508	83,965	111.2
Maize	27,602	37,160	134.6
Rice	7,761	6,909	89.0
b) *Pulses:*			
Beans (Haricot)	6,349	5,027	79.2
Beans, (Kidney)	1,622	1,754	108.1
c) *Potatoes and Vegetables:*			
Potatoes	27,165	36,570	134.6
Cabbages	4,594	7,932	172.7
Cauliflowers	2,698	6,225	230.7
Tomatoes	9,523	22,881	240.3
d) *Industrial crops:*			
Sugar beet	32,716	82,941	253.5
Tobacco	425	807	189.9
Hemp	1,097	173	15.8
e) *Fresh Fruit:*			
Apples	2,883	15,566	539.9
Pears	1,971	5,186	263.1
Peaches	2,313	6,795	293.8
f) *Dried Fruit:*			
Walnut	480	588	122.5
Hazel Nuts	218	396	181.7
Almonds	1,804	1,717	95.2
g) *Citrus:*			
Oranges	3,255	8,689	211.0
Lemons	3,269	3,558	108.8
Mandarins	534	1,113	208.4
h) *Wine (thousand hectolitres)*	38,247	60,047	157.0
i) Oil	2,293	2,678	116.8
2. Animal Products			
a) *Edible:*			
Beef	3,546	4,696	132.2
Lamb and Goat	508	386	76.0
Pork	2,259	3,684	163.1
Poultry and Rabbits	656	1,286	196.0
Milk	16,123	26,377	163.6
Cheese	2,463	3,164	128.5
Butter	545	625	114.7
Eggs	3,059	3,430	112.1
b) *Non-edible:*			
Cocoons	282	78	27.7
Wool	137	124	90.5

Structure and Objectives of the Agricultural Conference
Members of the Conference - Preliminary Reports

The way in which the question of modifying Italian agriculture so that it meets the requirements of technical, economic and social progress and can reach the level of other sectors, at the same time setting a basis for close European collaboration, has been approached in a manner that has fully satisfied expectations and demonstrated the democratic maturity of the nation. Economic, social and technical organizations and all other bodies connected with agriculture have been called upon to assist and, in this way, it became possible to organize the National Conference of the Rural and Agricultural World. On June 8, 1961, the Prime Minister, the Hon. Amintore Fanfani — who was Minister of Agriculture some ten years ago — inaugurated the Conference at the F.A.O. headquarters in Rome, in the presence of 360 delegates who were welcomed by the Director General of the world organization.

The Hon. Campilli, Chairman of the National Council for Economy and Labour, a constitutional body providing economic guidance, and Chairman of the Organizing Committee, together with the Minister of Agriculture, the Hon. Rumor and Professor Bandini, summarized the objectives of the meeting which, on inauguration day, had received 176 papers compiled by agricultural organizations and associations in reply to a questionnaire distributed earlier. The Secretariat had also prepared a vast amount of documentation in collaboration with various experts and bodies and drafted a great deal of data on its own initiative.

The Working Groups

After a preliminary phase, during which many interesting reports were summarized and illustrated, the Conference was divided into three working groups. The first was to deal with *problems of the rural world* (agricultural population, migration, culture and community living, technical training of farmers, social assistance and insurance, industrialization of rural areas, improvements to civic services, social aspects of certain types of farm structure and agricultural labour agreements), the second was assigned the *problems of agricultural structure* (land ownership, sizes of farms, various types of farming, agricultural labour agreements, land reclamation and transformation, uses of marginal land) while the third undertook *market and income problems* (costs of industrial products and services, fiscal and land registry questions, State contributions and aid, insurance and social assistance costs, marketing of principal

agricultural products, safeguards against fraud, costs and savings in agriculture, cooperation and structure of economic bodies).

The three working groups were also asked to make suggestions on development schemes for the purpose of widening the scope of the « Green Plan » (Agricultural Development Scheme).

During the final session of the Conference, held on October 10, 1961, the Hon. Campilli summarized the proposals put forward by the working groups which can be divided into two groups as follows:

— a first group including some fundamental ideas on a policy that would substantially modify regulations and structure;

— a second group with proposals on contingent measures.

Problems of the Rural World

The Exodus from Agriculture as a Positive Factor

The meeting was called the « Conference of the Rural and Agricultural World » in order to stress something new in economic expansion — the formation of a different rural society in which agriculture would not be the sole activity.

Current agrarian policy may almost be considered as contrary to that which was followed between the two world wars and which was directed at keeping a high level of the active population engaged in agriculture. The exodus from the rural areas must now be looked upon as something in direct relation to general economic expansion and it will probably bring settlement to many questions that were once considered to be hopeless.

Present policy, therefore, does not aim at blocking such a movement but rather of containing and reducing the differences in pro-capita average income from agriculture and other economic branches, thus permitting farming to reach the required stage of efficiency and prosperity. This is also vital to industry which might well suffer within a short period as a result of a drop in the purchasing power of the rural population.

But the overall question cannot be settled merely by strengthening agriculture. Other paths must be explored and activities outside the limits of farming must be promoted in rural areas so that a growing number of persons may change employment without having to change residence.

This objective has to be well considered by those responsible for public expenditure and by public holding companies since the settlement of new population in towns calls for high expenditure and introduces many complex matters of a social and ethical nature.

The "Green Plan" and its Growth

Unitary Planning for Homogeneous Rural Areas

To carry out the ideas advanced requires suitable public planning and an initial attempt has been made with the Five Year Plan for Agricultural Development.

Under balanced economic systems, planning is generally of a guiding nature or directed towards overcoming certain difficult moments in the general situation. In the case of economic systems such as that common to Italy, where areas showing intense industrial and agricultural progress are flanked by vast under-developed zones, planning must be pliant and consider particular objectives that run from production trends to territorial and local choices for investments, social structure and the means and bodies to be used in execution.

Private enterprise is mostly led by prospects of quick profit and, therefore, it cannot reach the objectives outlined above on its own. This has been demonstrated by recent events in Italian economic expansion. Spontaneous economic growth, in fact, is to be found concentrated in those areas and branches that can offer more immediate rises in income and there are often sharp contrasts in the measure of development in various parts of the country.

Agriculture is particularly interested in unitary planning hinged on homogeneous areas. There must be greater exploitation of local resources, modification of the economic and social structure and the launching of an independent development process.

The Juridical Status of Land Ownership

Before examining the fundamental problems of the various branches of agriculture, it may be opportune to glance at the many general factors which are closely related to one another.

Italian economy is still widely based on private enterprise. But this does not mean that land ownership should not be considered more deeply. A modern agricultural society should be characterized by a fair distribution of land for the concentration of ownership is one of the chief obstacles to the progress of backward populations and primitive economies.

The basic question, therefore, is the creation of a new and more efficient agricultural structure. Lighter taxes and various subsidies do not solve fundamental problems and often prevent the elimination of structure and farming methods that are technically and socially

of the past. Any intervention must be such that there are coordinated schemes which will encourage development that will result in a more balanced framework of costs and income.

In the same way, questions in relation to land ownership must be considered in the light of the creation of new and more practical farms. Intervention must be directed towards assisting those which are more efficient but, at the same time, agreements must be modified to meet the different requirements of a new labour force.

In considering productivity problems in farming, it should not be forgotten that these should be valued from a global viewpoint which embraces elements that are of an internal and external nature and which need an efficient network of complementary organizations, the cooperatives in particular.

An agrarian credit policy must never be thought of as an indiscriminate system of bank loans but as a selective means of helping various schemes and projects. Furthermore, social security must become an instrument that is capable of reducing the excessive differences between agricultural and non-agricultural categories.

Generally speaking, all problems, whether they concern land reclamation, credit, consortia and cooperatives, production methods, taxation or social security, must be examined according to new principles that are vastly different to those existing when basic defects were first apparent. Organizations and agencies needed to execute wider and more technical planning must be changed and although this may not necessarily affect their juridical and administrative structure, its must make their operations more modern. The rural population must be given greater consideration, the farmer's needs must be more deeply understood, procedure must be simplified and technical and financial aid given in a manner that is more suitable to the new structure and more in proportion to the importance of the task.

The Responsabilities of the Ministry of Agriculture
Proposals to Modify Administrative Structure

As already stated, planning calls for reorganization and simplification of the work of the numerous agencies, public departments and offices concerned with agriculture.

Widening the sphere of public enterprise, the tasks entrusted the Government grow in relation to the working capacity of services which, to a great extent, still maintain the characteristics and practices of the past.

Old institutions must be renewed and any such action should lie within the competence of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. It should include:

— central management:

a) greater numbers of technical and administrative categories, including the zonal agronomists considered in a Bill now being debated;

b) an internal structure that will permit a unitary approach to national planning and coordination of local planning;

c) greater responsibility for the Senior Council for Agriculture in the drafting of agricultural policy, as foreseen in the « Green Plan »;

— local management:

a) regional departments of the Ministry of Agriculture should be organized in a manner that permits coordination of the technical projects drafted by the various agencies operating within the region;

b) land development agencies to have wider powers, as considered in Article 32 of the « Green Plan », particularly in those areas in which erroneous land policy is the cause of backwardness.

The responsibilities of such agencies in executing various projects under the supervision of the Ministry of Agriculture should also include: drafting of local agricultural development schemes; assistance to local farmers and farm labourers, particularly in those areas where metayage is still practised; planned division of land and execution of all compulsory improvements; development of the agricultural cooperative movement.

Local agencies must work in harmony with the central authorities when taking part in agricultural development schemes.

The Problem of Infrastructure Schools, Roads and Public Services

Better living conditions in rural areas must be introduced not only for reasons of equity but also to prevent the population from starting disorderly abandonment of employment and wholesale transfer to the towns and cities, even when there are no well-founded hopes of finding something better. To this end, the following items should be considered:

a) central, regional and provincial government should all assist local authorities unable to undertake roadbuilding and the more essential services and provide technical and financial aid;

b) the Educational Plan should be executed as soon as possible since this is of the utmost importance to the improvement of living conditions of the rural population. Current schemes should be hastened, particularly those concerned with the building of new

schools, the teaching staff, transportation of students, post-scholastic assistance, travelling libraries, audio-visual aids, etc.;

c) in view of the urgent requirements of a modern agricultural structure, the Educational Plan should recognize the need to improve and enlarge the faculties of Agriculture and technical agrarian institutes and strengthen the network of training schools specializing in various branches of agriculture;

d) while completing the public health schemes and the general hospital structure, the authorities should furnish rural areas with health centres, ambulances and all necessary services and give financial aid to local government when this is unable to cover expenditure needed for same.

Land Reclamation.

The Activities of the State, the Consortia and Private-Enterprise

It has been constantly repeated that investments should be concentrated in those areas that will provide the highest income. Although such a tendency is certainly worthwhile it does not mean that the poorer localities should be ignored. The latter should equally be the object of investment policy and economic planning in proportion to the possibilities of their development. In other words, any artificial productive structure that would become a burden for the community, must be avoided.

Within the framework of national agricultural expansion, land reclamation still has to be discussed and the following suggestions have been made:

a) public land reclamation projects which are not of a strictly agricultural nature (highways, aqueducts, etc.) and which are often included in general planning, should be wholly financed by the State. In view of this, the financial burdens borne by many consortia in relation to undertakings of this kind in the past should be lightened by a long period of amortization at low interest rates.

b) Expenditure entailed in general land reclamation projects should be borne entirely by the State. Payment of quotas by private sources should only start when such projects are completed, as foreseen in the Green Plan (southern land reclamation areas). Such a principle is of the utmost important to irrigation schemes.

c) There should be greater harmony in the launching of public and private projects and the approval and financing of the former should imply their immediate execution so that general schemes can be utilized immediately.

d) Financial aid contemplated in the Green Plan should be increased in order that the more important land reclamation projects

can be completed without further delay. This again is of special importance to irrigation schemes in southern and Central-North Italy.

e) Widespread revision of State aid and intervention in relation to land reclamation implies reorganization of the consortia. There is urgent need to modify regulations on the land reclamation consortia so that proper attention is paid to their functions and the responsiblities of members and wider and more direct participation be permitted small and medium farmers.

In conformity with legislation, land reclamation must be accompanied by land improvement that justifies the chief objectives of the various schemes launched. The following suggestions have been made:

a) development agencies must coordinate and assist execution of land improvement projects even in those land reclamation areas where consortia are lacking;

b) legislation should be introduced that permits penalities on a graduated scale when land improvement is not carried out, expropriation against indemnity being applied in the most serious cases. Decision of such a nature should be the responsibility of an arbitration board.

Outside the land reclamation areas, compulsory improvements should include undertakings of a social nature, such as housing, supplies of drinking water and electrical energy. The cost of compulsory improvements, in conformity with a principle established by the Civil Code, should not exceed one fifth of the total rent (real or presumed) over a period of twelve years. Lessees, labourers and metayers should be permitted to ask the legal authorities to take action should a landowner fail to carry out his obligations, and enjoy the right of redress.

Provisions against Division of Land

To prevent the spreading of land division, the following proposals have been made:

a) regulations should be issued that sucesfully execute the principle of « minimum holdings » as foreseen in the Civil Code. This implies definition of « minimum holdings » in agricultural areas;

b) the Fund for Smallholdings and credit banks should facilitate purchase of land inherited by persons who have either withdrawn from farming or who have settled permanently in other localities.

A second series of regulations should be introduced for the purpose of correcting current land division that has been the result of earlier mistakes.

The following is suggested:

a) rights of pre-emption for the purchase of neighbouring land provided that, in conjunction with that already possessed, the size of a family farm is not exceeded;

b) additional norms to the regulations of the Civil Code be issued for the purpose of grouping small plots, particularly those holdings in areas in which irrigation is being developed. Schemes embracing the new structure of land division should be drafted by local land development agencies and reclamation consortia and executed in those areas in which they are competent. The development agencies should also be permitted to operate in the territory of those consortia that prove inefficient. Agencies and consortia should assist farmers in all procedure relative to the exercise of the right of pre-emption and in the purchase (or eventual expropriation against indemnity) of land to be added to farms that are below the minimum size;

c) in those localities in which the special law for mountainous areas applies, the State Forestry Department, the Provincial and Communal authorities and their consortia should be authorized to expropriate, against indemnity, all land that is not under cultivation. This may then be used for afforestation, transferred to smallholders or ceded under an agreement of emphyteusis;

d) examination should be made of the possibility of legally permitting insurance and welfare organizations, public or private, to invest part of their reserve capital in afforestation schemes, particularly in areas of high economic interest, but always in conformity with the norms governing such investments.

Types of Farms and Agricultural Agreements
Proposals to Eliminate Metayage

The most efficient farms are those that are managed directly by the farmer but this does not imply that all farms must be the same. The main characteristics are as follows:

a) family farms of a sufficient size, particularly those owned or leased by the farmer;

b) farms managed by employed staff and using highly technical methods.

It appears logical that agrarian policy should be such that it encourages the strengthening, spreading and safeguarding of the types mentioned above.

Table II - Farms in Italy - Provisional data (Census 15-4-1961)

REGION	Direct Management		Hired Management		Collective Management		Other types of Management		Total	
	No.	Area (Hectares)	No.	Area (Hectares)	No.	Area (Hectares)	No.	Area (Hectares)	No.	Area (Hectares)
Piedmont	346,465	1,474,125	14,615	512,302	13,319	103,725	2,824	64,378	377,223	2,154,530
Valle d'Aosta	12,440	106,744	663	109,228	2	7	30	1,442	13,135	217,421
Liguria	99,979	346,681	4,446	87,483	4,990	21,854	2,683	8,568	112,098	464,586
Lombardy	312,313	1,153,832	16,264	611,847	11,715	92,215	3,119	15,052	343,411	1,872,946
Trentino-Alto Adige	79,704	534,787	3,592	591,889	637	5,083	2,562	8,943	86,495	1,140,702
Venetia	283,955	942,316	6,152	334,723	23,244	204,854	2,236	15,972	315,587	1,497,865
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	93,626	386,594	2,215	149,616	4,781	53,084	1,382	15,565	102,004	604,859
Emilia-Romagna	164,762	945,063	14,264	340,471	63,194	658,442	887	6,790	243,107	1,950,766
Marches	53,400	234,217	3,698	113,943	61,021	532,495	230	6,567	118,349	887,222
Tuscany	141,336	680,795	16,918	713,292	71,639	660,158	4,857	29,459	234,750	2,083,704
Umbria	45,496	204,563	4,468	230,712	26,901	324,942	983	3,527	77,848	763,744
Latium	222,932	743,085	16,388	590,164	11,500	133,533	6,262	40,560	257,082	1,507,342
Campania	303,214	777,210	13,524	287,855	6,359	43,805	13,537	67,205	336,634	1,176,075
Abruzzi and Molise	190,004	682,175	6,640	430,123	21,654	168,970	7,357	39,421	225,655	1,320,689
Apulia	298,975	1,069,204	45,719	414,914	1,826	34,167	27,552	207,999	374,072	1,726,284
Basilicata	90,519	602,619	4,494	227,413	1,361	35,444	3,895	34,420	100,269	899,896
Calabria	235,702	742,188	32,051	492,500	7,458	66,460	10,196	74,513	285,407	1,375,661
Sicily	439,967	1,152,313	78,694	556,938	5,051	52,417	55,945	460,297	579,657	2,221,965
Sardenia	114,767	1,472,349	10,352	585,338	224	7,448	2,008	84,803	127,351	2,149,938
Total	3,529,556	14,250,860	295,157	7,380,751	336,876	3,199,103	148,545	1,185,481	4,310,134	20,016,195

N. B. 1 hectare — 2.5 acres.

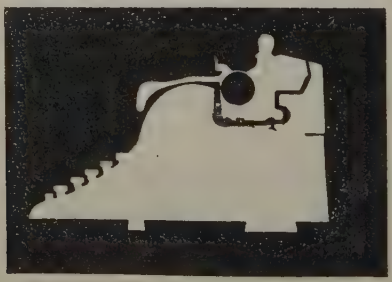
In relation to problems connected with management under the metayage system, the following proposals have been made:

a) intervention that will hasten the transformation of metayage into ownership;

b) intervention that will modify agricultural agreements so that they meet the requirements of technical progress and social advancement.

To hasten development of the various types of farms and holdings, it is suggested that the present growth of independent farmers be facilitated through the granting of loans and mortgages of all types to persons egaged in agriculture (smallholders, lessees, metayers, salaried workers, etc.) for the purchase of land suitable to economically efficient farms or required to increase the size of existing farms that are below the minimum scale. Loans and mortgages should correspond to the total purchase price and be repayable over a period of forty years at a rate of interest that does not exceed one percent.

This imposing series of proposals and suggestions has been accepted by the Government as a practical basis for legislative action. The Prime Minister, the Hon. Amintore Fanfani, has asked the Minister of Agriculture, in collaboration with other interested Government departments « to study the conclusions reached during the Conference and to take those administrative and legislative measures considered necessary to the overcoming of the crisis that is burdening agriculture ».



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PRESIDENCY OF THE COUNCIL OF MINISTERS
INFORMATION SERVICE

The Information Service of the Presidency of the Council of Ministers is not an instrument for circulating Government propaganda: its purpose is to document and provide more detailed and objective information about the Government, Italians at home and abroad, and foreigners. Like all similar services set up in the most progressive democratic countries, it has a twofold aim: to record and to inform public opinion.

In its work of recording public opinion, the Service acquaints the Government, and other State offices that are interested, with everything that Italian and foreign press and foreign radio stations publish or broadcast daily about Italy, her problems and international relations. In carrying out its second function, the Information Service provides information about the activity and achievements of the Government, defining situations and attitudes, above all, when these are the subject of inexact or biased interpretation.

The purpose of this articles is to show how the dual need to collect and supply information — an activity to which all states now attribute the fullest importance — is met, within the framework of Italian State Admininistration, by a competent organization whose development goes hand in hand with the ever-increasing efficiency of the country's structure.

1) Services Engaged in Collecting Information

These have the task of keeping the Government and offices of State informed about anything of importance that the Italian and foreign press and the world's principal radio stations publish or broadcast daily: that is, about political, economic and cultural affairs, and any question that may be of interest to Italy and bear on her internal problems and international relations.

An enormous and heterogeneous mass of data must be collected, appraised, selected, and presented in the most suitable form so that their relevance will be apparent and their eventual consultation as documentary material made easy. This work requires a particularly complex and technical system which has been developed within the

Information Service with the help of the latest forms of research, classification, and mechano-graphic arrangement, and the collaboration of a large and qualified staff.

Summaries and news summaries regularly compiled and distributed daily by the Information Service of the Presidency of the Council, of Ministers are as follows:

— Summary of Rome morning newspapers;
— Summary of Rome evening newspapers;
— Summary of provincial daily newspapers;
— Summary of political periodicals;
— Summary of cultural and political reviews;
— Summary of Italian papers and magazines published abroad;
— Summary of the foreign press;
— A monitoring bulletin.

A special department is engaged in monitoring 67 programmes in 14 different languages broadcast by foreign stations, employing an adequate staff of stenographers, interpreters and translators, and equipped with modern apparatus for reception and recording. It is of interest to note that this department is linked by teleprinter with the Presidency of the Republic, the Presidency of the Council of Ministers and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, so as to ensure rapid communication of important news, both telegraphic and broadcast.

2) Documentation

Between the collection and provision of information, there is an intermediate phase: that of documentation. Its purpose is to classify and file the material collected and so arrange it that it can be conveniently utilised. By means of such documentation it is possible, even after the passage of time, to provide Government departments with any relevant data that may be requested. The efficiency of the Information Service depends upon the careful sorting and filing of complex and valuable data which only a State organization not motivated by economic considerations can distribute.

All this material is filed according to rational and modern journalistic criteria, facilitating rapid research in the political archives, which include a press library, a reference library and a reading room.

The political archives deal with the classification of news items from 1946 to the present time, and taken from newspapers and the

ANSA press agency. An index is available of the more important articles published in the cultural and political periodicals, and there is a press clippings service, up to date and of easy reference.

Both the press clippings and the classified news items are divided into three categories — internal affairs, foreign affairs, and biographies.

The photographic department with its adjoining micro-film archives is an indispensable aspect of documentation. It is important not only because copies of articles and news items can be supplied with timely promptitude without referring to originals, but also because of the urgent need to economize in space.

3) Providing Information

The department collecting and documenting data not only enables the Government to provide information, but also affords the press material and facilities that, in a democratic state, are rightly due to what is termed the fourth power.

Naturally enough, the Service deals with general and legal matters connected with information and the press in particular, keeps in touch with the world of journalism, helps correspondents to carry out their work and remains in contact with the Press and Research Offices of the various Ministries.

In this connection, it should be noted that the Service collects and keeps up to date all items connected with foreign press legislation, and the regulations which govern Information and Documentation Services throughout the world.

In order to ensure the maximum circulation of communiqués and official Government releases in a streamlined and rapid manner, a special agreement was stipulated with ANSA (Agenzia Nazionale Stampa Associata) which is of direct interest to all daily newspapers.

Another agreement has been stipulated with the ITALIA Agency, covering the direct despatch of news, articles and photographs to the Italian-language press abroad.

Moreover, to facilitate its work at home and abroad and meet the needs of experts in political, economic, and social questions, etc., the Information Service makes use of the quickest and most up-to-date media: for example, publications in Italian and foreign languages, posters, photographic material, mobile cinema units, documentaries, broadcasting and telegraphy.

Of fundamental importance is the monthly periodical « Documenti di Vita Italiana » which has now been in existence for over ten years and is widely read in Italian and foreign political, economic and cultural circles. Its monthly circulation is 20,000 copies, its average size 80 pages, and it is sent to all political figures, to local departments of the Public Administration, to other bodies and to professional correspondents. It is possible to subscribe for its regular delivery; it is on sale at newsagents and is sent to all Italian diplomatic representatives abroad and to cultural institutes, private associations, and newspaper offices upon request.

« Documenti di Vita Italiana » is also published in the following foreign languages: in English as « Italian Affairs » (15,000 copies), in French as « Documents de Vie Italienne » (8,000 copies), in Spanish as « Hoy in Italia » (10,000 copies) and in German as « Berichte uber das Leben in Italien » (6,000 copies). Both in the Italian and foreign editions, this periodical aims to provide not only pleasant reading but also up to date information on life in Italy.

The same objective governs the publications of the periodical « Italia », which is printed in five languages (English, French, Spanish, German and Arabic) and which has a large circulation abroad (15,000 copies). This is essentially a pictorial review and, as it is printed in rotogravure and the photographs are large in size, reproduction is simple.

The Service also provides for the despatch to the Italian and foreign press of photographs and cliches illustrating the various aspects of life in this country. In addition, it produces short documentary films illustrating Italian achievements. These are intended for screening in motion picture theatres but are also carried to the outlying districts by a fleet of 18 mobile units (16 cine vans and 2 travelling exhibitions). Abroad, these documentaries are distributed through embassies, legations, commercial organizations and private companies.

The Information Service is also officially represented at international events, such as fairs and expositions, contributing its own photographic material and films. Each month, more than 60,000 copies of the poster series « Italian Life » (« Vita Italiana ») are affixed in all Italian Communes and they provide a concise and objective survey of specific aspects of conditions in Italy and the results that have been achieved.

From time to time, the Information Service also publish booklets, leaflets and annuals that describe particular questions of

topical interest. Examples of these are « Un decennio di vita italiana 1946-56 », « Aspetti di vita italiana contemporanea », « Guida alla Costituzione », published to mark the tenth anniversary of the Republic, and « Comunità Economica Europea ». Other publications include « La Cassa per il Mezzogiorno per la soluzione della questione meridionale » and « L'economia italiana negli ultimi cento anni ».

In addition, there are various supplements to the periodical « Documenti di Vita Italiana » on specific subjects that require more detailed treatment than this magazine permits.

Another volume which enjoys wide circulation abroad is « L'Italia d'oggi » (Italy Today) (1962), published in four languages (English, French, Spanish, German) and providing documentation of a statistical and pictorial nature on current conditions in Italy.

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The supplying of information to Iron Curtain countries is chiefly done through sound broadcasting and morse. In this branch, the Service avails itself of the technical and professional capacity of highly qualified personnel of the Italian Radio and Television Corporation (R.A.I.) whose political sense, knowledge and experience of the countries concerned, and perfect command of the languages used, fit them for this work.

Sixty nine programmes for Europe and oversea countries are broadcast every day, and they may vary from a minimum of 7 to a maximum of 120 minutes in length. The basis of each programme is a news bulletin, but in addition it comprises (according to length and destination) musical selections, request music, commentaries, recordings, interviews, and anything that may be of interest to listeners. 32 languages are used (Albanian, Arabic, Bengali, Bulgarian, Chinese, Czech, Danish, English, Esperanto, French, German, Greek, Hindi, Hungarian, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Lithuanian, Persian, Polish, Portuguese, Rumanian, Russian, Serbo-Croat, Slovak, Slovene, Somali, Spanish, Swedish, Turkish, Ukrainian, Urdu). There are five transmitters, which function with directional or circular aerials according to technical requirements. Broadcasts continue over a 24-hour period, and as a general rule two to different parts of the world and in different languages are broadcast simultaneously: one on two, and the other on three, frequencies.

Programmes in foreign languages for Europe and overseas vary in length from 7 to 40 minutes.

Equally interesting is the series of programmes intended for Italians who are resident abroad or have become naturalised citizens of other countries; a series taking up a considerable part of broadcasting time as follows:

Australia, New Zealand and Far East	3 programmes per day
North, Central and South America	3 » » »
Africa, Former Italian Colonies, Near and Middle East	2 » » »
Europe	1 programme per week
Press summary for overseas countries	2 programmes per day
Western Europe	1 programme » »

During the winter when the football championship is underway, a commentary on one of the matches is broadcast on Sunday afternoons in conjunction with the medium wave domestic network. Home programmes, too, are broadcast by the R.A.I. short wave station at Caltanisetta in conjunction with medium wave stations so that Italians abroad can receive them without too much difficulty.

From 00.05 to 06.35 hours the programmes known as « Nocturne From Italy » is broadcast on Rome II medium wave and Caltanisetta A short wave stations. It comprises a varied musical selection and short news bulletins in Italian, French, English, and German. Reception is excellent throughout Europe, in the Mediterranean basin, and other areas.

Alongside sound broadcasts a Bulletin in morse lasting 45 minutes is transmitted twice daily on two or three wavelengths. It is intended not only for ships in navigation, but for Europe and the Far East in the morning and for the Americas and Europe in the afternoon and evening. Two bulletins in Italian are read daily at dictation speed.

Apart from the above-mentioned activity, local radio systems, from time to time, are sent records of Italian music, news bulletins, and an assortment of broadcasting material.

The Service dedicates itself in particular to the perusal, translation and answering of countless letters (about 100,000 a year), received

from listeners all over the world. Dealing with such correspondence requires no small amount of research since the most varied and unexpected requests are made and these are met as far as possible by supplying information of every sort about Italy and despatching what material is available. It is quite common for listeners in poorer areas to ask for food, medicines and clothing, their health and economic condition being much reduced. As far as is humanly possible such entreaties are satisfied directly, or indirectly through the appropriate national and international organisations which are informed of such cases by the department.

4) Further Activities of the Information Branch

The dual activity of recording and informing public opinion, as already outlined, is the specific task of the Information Service of the Presidency of the Council of Ministers. There is, however, another which is also the legal and political responsibility of states boasting parliamentary democracy: to help all the organs of public opinion with measures which facilitate and guarantee the free circulation of information. This entails the granting of transport and telecommunication services at reduced costs to dailies and periodicals of a political, trade union or cultural character in view of the special public importance of press activity and the issuing of special permits for public occasions in order to help reporters, editors and photographers to carry out their functions.

The Information Service is concerned with relations with professional press bodies and the RAI-TV, and also with the study and formulation of draft Bills dealing with the Information Service, submitting them to the Cabinet and documenting their progress in Parliament. It is also the Service's job to offer advice about questions raised in Parliament; to collect statistical data about publishing activity; to help in ensuring the observance of the law by denouncing offences committed by the press, or through the press, with special attention to penal laws about pornographic publications and those for children and adolescents, or publications containing immoral articles all of which are classed together by the present law.

Yet further tasks come within the sphere of the Information Service. These include international agreements about exchange of information and the conventions regulating reception and circulation of news and the transfer of audiovisual material connected with such services; relations with international organizations that are concerned with information questions in general (UNO, UNESCO, NATO); and contact with the corresponding services of the EEC for the distribution

of news about European institutions (ECM, EURATOM, European Coal and Steel Community).

As has already been pointed out, the Presidency of the Council's Information Service is in close contact, for reasons of collaboration and coordination, with the press offices of the various Ministries and with the corresponding Service at the Foreign Ministry which has the job of acquainting the Italian and foreign press about international events and Italy's international position. It is also in close touch with foreign Press Attachés at embassies and legations in Italy. On the other hand, Italian Press Officers appointed to Prefectures in most of the chief regional towns by agreements with the Ministry of the Interior, come directly under the Presidency of the Council and act as its provincial representatives.

INFORMATION SERVICE

Temporary Head: Spinetti, Dr. Gastone Silvano.

Division I - *General Affairs*

Staff - Human Relations - Budgets and Balance - Supplies and Contracts - Transport Facilities for Italian and Foreign Press - Press Passes for Public Meetings and Events - Newspapers and Kiosks - Supervision and Despatch of Service Publications.

Relations with Press Associations - Publicity Problems - Circulation of Information - Press Agencies.

Divisional Head: Troncelliti, Dr. Giuseppe.

Inspector of Press Service (Div. II and III), Lefevre, Prof. Renato.

Division II - *Italian Press*

Communiques and Information on Government - Press Conferences - Relations with Press Attaches and Heads of Ministerial Press Offices - Press Cuttings - Press Summaries - Information to Ministeries and other State Departments.

Master Files of Periodicals, Authors and Articles - Files of Press Cuttings, Speeches, Statements, Interviews and Communiques - Control of Compulsory Copies of Periodicals - Printing and Reproduction of Summaries and Communiques - Recording of Speeches, Interviews and Press Conferences.

Temporary Divisional Head: Nicolosi, Dr. Salvatore.

DIVISION III - *Foreign Press*

Foreign Press Summary in English, French, German, Russian, Serbo-Croat, Slovene, Spanish and Portughese - Relations with Foreign Press Club - Relations with Foreign Press Agencies and Newspapers - Relations with Foreign Correspondents - Relations with Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Press Attaches - Information to Ministries - Travel Facilities for Foreign Correspondents - Press Passes.

Divisional Head: LERDA-OLBERG, Dr. Giovanni.

DIVISION IV - *Radio and Television*

Monitoring Service (Home and Foreign) - Information and Assistance to Foreign Radio Stations - Relations with the Ministry for Posts and Telecommunications and the Italian Radio and Television Corporation - Sound Broadcasting Research and Congresses - World Agreements and Conventions on Audiovisual Exchange - Correspondence with Listeners.

Reception and Recording of Foreign Radio and Radiotelegraphic Transmissions - Editing of News for Teletype Transmission or Summary of Recording Service - Technical Control - Overseas Offices and Technical Radio and Television Problems of an Internal and World Nature.

Comments on Television Programmes, with Special Reference to Political and Social Features - Exchange with Foreign Television Corporations - Research on Television Problems and Congresses.

Divisional Head: LUCIDI, Dr. Raoul.

DIVISION V - *Documentation*

Perusal of Press for Documentation Purposes - Summary of more important Articles not handled by Division II - Multilith Reproduction of Articles - Publication of « ITALDOC » - Assistance to Italian Foreign Correspondents - Various - Methods of Documentation.

Political Files - Files on important events from 1945 onwards - ANSA Files from 1958 onwards - Press Cuttings - Index of Parliamentary Acts - Distribution of Newspapers and Periodicals - Registration of Periodicals Received - Reading Rooms - Libraries.

Temporary Divisional Head: COPPOTELLI, Dr. Flaminio.

DIVISION VI - *Statistical Information and Publications*

Publication of « Documenti di Vita Italiana » - Year Books, Information Booklets and Releases - Compilation of Data on Economic, Social and Political Events in Italy - Relations with Ministries and other Government Departments and Agencies.

Publication of « Italian Affairs », « Hoy in Italia », « Documents de la Vie Italienne », « Documenti-Berichte über das Leben in Italien » - Year Books and Booklets for Foreign Distribution.

Temporary Divisional Head: CAVAZZUTTI, Dr. Carlo.

DIVISION VII - *Films and Photographs*

Production and Purchase of Documentary Films for Information Purposes - Distribution of Documentary Films in Italy and Abroad - Circulation and Management of Mobile Cine Vans and Promotion of Screenings - Film Library. Documentary Photographs - Distribution of Photographs, and Cliches in Italy and Abroad - Publication of the Magazine « Italia » and « Vita Italiana » Posters - Promotion of Expositions in Italy and Abroad - Photographic Library.

Divisional Head: BONIFAZI, Dr. Romano.

DIVISION VIII - *Legislation and Public Opinion*

Legislative questions relative to the Information Service and information media - Replies to Queries - Bills and Regulations on the Press in Italy and throughout the World - Press and Trade Union Law - Bills on Press Publications for Juveniles in Italy and Abroad - Schools of Journalism - Press Rolls - Italian and Foreign Press Congresses and Conventions - Publicity in Italy and Abroad - Press Awards.

Psychology of Public Opinion and Surveys on Public Opinion - State Public Relations in Italy and Abroad - Technique of Propaganda, Publicity and Information - Relations with N.A.T.O. and other World Organizations - Cultural Agreements - World Congresses - Arrangements for Foreign Visitors - Courses on Journalism and Information for Foreigners.

Temporary Divisional Head: SANTA MARIA, Dr. Luigi.

THE ITALIAN STEEL INDUSTRY

Situation during 1955/1960. Achievements and Prospects.

The five year period 1955-1960 has witnessed the speedy growth of the Italian steel industry and production was well above the 1953-1954 level which were considered record years (1).

Data in Table I show that production of pig iron rose by 65%, from 1.6 million tons in 1955 to 2.7 million tons in 1960 while steel increased by 53%, reaching 8.2 million tons in 1960. There has also been a satisfactory rise in hot-rolled sections, from 4 million tons in 1955 to 6.6 million tons in 1960, equal to 65%.

It is interesting to note that last year's production level was more than twice the figure registered in 1953.

Table I - Production of Pig iron, steel and hot-rolled sections 1938-1960 (*thousand tons*)

YEAR	Pig iron	Steel	Hot-rolled Sections
1938	863	2,323	1,735
1953	1,222	3,500	2,496
1955	1,625	5,395	4,025
1956	1,873	5,908	4,436
1957	2,072	6,787	5,121
1958	2,060	6,271	4,755
1959	2,098	6,762	5,202
1960	2,683	8,230	6,645

As regards structure of this industrial branch, production of the chief items (pig iron, steel and hot-rolled sections) has been concentrated among a small number of companies. With the merging of two of the largest plants, Ilva and Cornigliano, to form FINSIDER (considered to be the third largest producer in the Coal and Steel Community), concentration of the Italian steel industry has progressed even further, following the pattern common to other heavy steel-producing nations. In fact, placing production in the hands of a few large companies enables the most modern technological methods to be used, resulting in high output and low costs but still permitting a sufficiently varied gamma of products.

(1) Data taken from article by E.S. in « Bancaria », Nos. 6/7 (June-July 1961) Rome.

At the beginning of 1960, the Italian steel industry showed the following stucture:

Pig iron production - 12 blast furnaces with an annual production capacity (1960) of 2,500,000 tons and 48 electric furnaces with an annual capacity of 300,000 tons;

Steel Production - 74 Martin Siemens open hearth furnaces with an annual capacity (1960) of 5 million tons, 247 electric furnaces with an annual production capacity of 3,400,000 tons and 11 converters with a capacity of 690,000 tons per annum - total: 9,090,000 tons;

Steel Processing - 279 rolling mills, 58 foundries, 36 forging mills, 359 mills for cold-rolled sections, 1,812 drawing mills and 225 mills for various types of product.

The rapid development of the Italian steel industry has naturally led to a strong expansion in the import of raw materials. Imports of ferrous minerals have tripled over the past five years and represent two thirds of domestic consumption.

Imports of scrap iron have risen by 40% and currently represent 50% of domestic consumption. Purple ore is produced in sufficient quantities locally.

Table II - Available Raw Materials - 1955-1960
(*thousand tons*)

RAW MATERIALS	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960
Ferrous Minerals						
Domestic	1,300	1,613	1,489	1,283	1,237	1,245
Imports	836	1,280	1,755	2,375	1,634	2,621
Total	2,536	2,893	3,244	3,658	2,871	3,866
Exports	48	42	70	13	3	8
Balance	2,488	2,851	3,174	3,645	2,868	3,858
Purple Ore						
Domestic (a)	1,075	1,095	1,185	1,100	1,060	1,125
Imports	—	—	1	97	—	21
Total	1,075	1,095	1,186	1,197	1,060	1,146
Exports	324	367	441	440	443	716
Balance	751	728	745	757	617	430
Scrap (iron, steel, cast iron)						
Domestic:						
from various sources	962	942	1,027	762	1,053	—
salvage from steel industry	1,292	1,424	1,583	1,682	1,720	—
Total	2,254	2,366	2,610	2,444	2,773	3,100
Imports	2,268	2,316	2,824	2,814	2,630	3,253
Total domestic and imports	4,522	4,682	5,434	5,258	5,403	6,353
Exports	1	2	16	—	6	1
Balance	4.521	4.680	5.418	5.258	5.397	6.352

(a) Figure calculated on apparent availability of iron pyrites reduced by 30 % since the yield of purple ore is about 75 %.

The fact that imports of ferrous minerals are higher than those of scrap demonstrates that the Italian industry is gradually turning towards the use of continuous mills now employed by all modern industries.

Production Growth

In 1955, Italy held 8th. place in the list of world steel producers, but marked progress was made in 1956 and 1957. In fact, production of pig iron in the latter year exceeded two million tons and steel and hot-rolled sections rose by approximately 15% over the preceding year.

Following the set-back caused by the general economic situation in 1958, the Italian industry established new records in 1960, the percentage increase being very high. Production for the year was estimated at 2,7 million tons of pig iron (+ 28%), 8.2 million tons of steel (+ 22%) and 6.6 million tons of hot-rolled sections (+ 27%).

Italy has maintained her position among world producers and is preceded by the United States (90 million tons), the U.S.S.R. (65 million tons), Western Germany (34 million tons), the United Kingdom (24 million tons), France (17 million tons), Japan (22 million tons and China (15 million tons).

Import Trends

The growth in production has been accompanied by a corresponding expansion in foreign trade in steel products. In 1955 and 1956, imports remained steady at 950,000 tons but rose to 1,164,000 tons in 1957, exceeding the previous year's figures by 23%. There was a further increase of 14% in 1958 (1,211,600 tons) and a new jump in 1959, due to the pressure of Coal and Steel Community producers on the Italian market during the recession period and the upward trend in demand that followed. Imports reached 1,525,400 tons, 26% above the 1958 level.

Although these figures are a record for imports in this particular industrial branch, they were left far behind in 1960 for, with no further preoccupation over available product, the demand for steel products expanded sharply, even surpassing the production level at times and resulting in heavier purchase on foreign markets. Total imports, in fact, were estimated at 2,750,000 tons (2,233,000 serap), exceeding the 1959 level by 80%.

Export Trends

Exports over the period 1955-1960 have also shown a definite upward trend, rising from 315,000 tons in 1955 to approximately 1,250,000 tons in 1960 (1,187,000 tons of steel products).

As a result of a series of factors that favoured Italian expansion on foreign markets, exports in 1956 increased by 80% over the figures for 1955. Exports of iron and steel, excluding pig iron and ferrous alloys, exceeded imports for the first time in the history of the Italian steel industry (587,000 tons for imports, 692,000 tons for exports).

The trend of 1956 continued to some extent in 1957 and once again exports were higher (for iron and steel), reaching 787,000 tons against imports of 754,000 tons. The satisfactory results of the first six months of the year in question, however, were followed by a somewhat slower period.

In spite of the general world recession, foreign trade expanded in 1958 but higher imports cancelled the surplus registered in the two preceding years.

In 1959, exports of steel products were lower than imports. None the less, there were strong signs of the competitive level reached by the Italian industry for, exporting products that had a higher unitary value those those imported, it closed the year with a total value of 90.6 milliard lire for the former and 89.4 milliard lire for the latter.

Finally, in 960, exports expanded in a somewhat weaker manner than imports. The increase over the previous was estimated at 30% and a new primate of 1,160,700 tons (1,187,500 tons of steel) was reached. Calculations show that exports of the Italian steel industry have tripled between 1955 and 1960.

The data included in this report reveal the achievements of the industry over a period which has witnessed sharp expansion. There are no signs that this trend is likely to slow and, in view of this, the chief companies operating in this branch of heavy industry have drafted various important projects. These will undoubtedly increase yearly output and productive capacity in 1965 should be in the region of 14 million tons of steel. The strengthening of the industry and the elimination of those weak points still existing will enable Italy to openly compete with foreign companies on both the home and foreign markets.

THE OLDEST MUSICAL ACADEMY IN THE WORLD

The Academy of Santa Cecilia originates from a musical association formed in 1566 through the initiative of Pier Luigi da Palestrina and, as the Congregation of Santa Cecilia, rapidly became a successful and independent body. It was the centre of attraction for composers, singers and instrumentalists who were all trained in the art of writing and playing sacred music, although profane compositions were by no means disdained.

In 1624, the Congregation was authorized to supervise the publication and execution of all types of music within the State and given powers to veto any attempts to open a school of music. It could also take action against anyone who violated the regulations issued by the Council of Trent in relation to the singing of sacred music.

The Congregation-Academy occupied various premises in Rome up to 1870, the year in which it was established in an old monastery near Piazza del Popolo. To be admitted as members, candidates were expected to undergo examination and, after regular courses, were given a diploma as composers, organists, singers or instrumentalists.

Under a decree of October 17, 1874, the Pontifical Congregation of Santa Cecilia was reorganized and assumed the title of « The Royal Academy of Santa Cecilia ». Its chief task was to promote the study and diffusion of music for the purpose of upholding the Italian school which was still benefitting from the influences and example of the great masters of various nations.

It was Count Enrico di San Martino (who conducted the affairs of the Academy from 1895 to 1947) who instituted the present system of nomination of teachers and lecturers. These are no longer required to take examinations but are chosen from among musicians and musicologists of world fame and persons who have made worthy contributions to musical art or the progress of the Academy.

The Statute of May 5, 1912 limited the number of permanent members (Italians) to one hundred and honourary members (non-Italians) to fifty. At the present time, there are seventy permanent members and 30 honourary members. Throughout the course of the centuries the Academy has filled its registers with such great names as Palestrina, Corelli, Monteverdi, Scarlatti, Carissimi, Cherubini,

Spontini, Paganini, Rossini, Donizetti, Verdi, Boito, Cilea, Sgambati, Giordano, Mascagni, Puccini, Respighi, Mulè, Casella, Alfano, Refice, Cantelli, Toscanini and Perosi.

Foreign members of the Academy of Santa Cecilia have included Wagner, Liszt, Gounod, Mendelssohn, Meyerberg, Ravel, Strauss, Widor, Elgar, Faurè, De Falla, Schoenberg, Saint-Saens, Debussy, Honegger, Sibelius, Furtwangler and Gieseking.

Today, the most famous names in world musical circles are all members.

After the proclamation of the kingdom of Italy, the Academy opened a musical Lycée in 1876 which is now the Conservatory of Santa Cecilia. Annexed to this is one of the most important libraries in Italy, consisting of 184,514 scrolls, letters, documents, books and other publications.

The concert hall in Via dei Greci, capable of holding 1,200 spectators, was opened in 1895 when an address commemorating Pier Luigi da Palestrina was read by Ruggero Bonghi. This great hall has witnessed the performances of soloists, singers, conductors, choirs and orchestras of world renown and such grandiose productions as « Il sacrificio di Jefte » by Carissimi the « Requiem » by Brahms, the « Four Seasons » by Haydn, the « Nuit de Valpurga » by Mendelssohn and Giuseppe Verdi's « Requiem Mass ».

But the desire to bring music nearer to the people gave rise to the need for larger promises. Choice fell on the area surrounding Via Ripetta, where the Tomb of Augustus is to be found, which had been used from the 18th. century onwards for circuses, firework displays and open air theatre festivals.

The decaying building chosen was restored, covered with a glass dome and transformed into a concert hall capable of holding 3,000 spectators which meant that it was worthy of comparison with those existing in most other countries.

The inauguration — following the tradition of « popular » concerts — took place on February 16, 1908 with a memorable concert conducted by Giuseppe Martucci. The success of this opening night and the programmes that followed was so spontaneous and clamourous that an ever growing public began to throng the hall. The President of the Academy and other couragious persons who, in planning such a large concert hall, had feared that they might never be able fill it, were completely rewarded and satisfied.

The future of the hall seemed to be assured. To make it even more renowned, invitations were sent to conductors, orchestras,

instrumentalists and singers of world fame who were only too glad to take advantage of the honour offered them.

The best demonstration of the growing importance of the new concert hall is the thousands of concerts that were arranged. The programmes were always of a very high order and the compositions of the immortal masters alternated with those of less grandiose stature. Spectators were ever ready to show their comprehension but, at times, there were lengthy and vivacious discussions and although some composers were compelled to succumb there were others who succeeded in conquering public opinion and widening appreciation of new Italian and foreign music.

The merits must undoubtedly be attributed to Count di San Martino and those who assisted him, and no less to Bernardino Molinari who was resident conductor and artistic director from 1912 to 1944. The latter had the courage to introduce new composers and works that were the subject of much discussion and he insisted on their performance until those that merited it were finally accepted and given just recognition.

In 1936, it was decided to clear the area around the Tomb of Augustus and the concert hall was demolished. The public performances offered by the Academy then took place at the Teatro Argentina where they have continued. A new auditorium, with a hall for symphony concerts capable of holding 3,500 persons and a hall for chamber music, with a seating capacity of 1,000, plus recording studios, rehearsal rooms, offices, etc. is to be built on the Via Flaminia.

The experiment in open air, summer concerts first started in 1929 in the Cortile della Sapienza, then the seat of Rome University. These became an established fact in 1933 when the Basilica of Maxentius, situated in an area of incomparable beauty between the Coliseum and Piazza Venezia, was chosen. Tickets were three lire (equal to 300 lire) and attendance was remarkably high.

The success of the concerts arranged by the Academy of Santa Cecilia among Roman and foreign music lovers is obvious from the number given. They have now reached the figure of 4,300, including indoor and outdoor performance in Rome and other Italian and European cities. The orchestra of the Academy is often invited to take part in tournées and it has achieved not a little success.

In 1922, the Academy founded a « National Concert Union » to further close collaboration between musical organizations in various Italian cities. The idea was widened in 1929 and a « World Concert Federation » was formed. Its success was such that membership

included the principal European states, the United States of America and Japan.

Gradually becoming an international attraction with its advanced courses for students who had obtained diplomas at conservatories, the Academy granted its patronage to the « Italian Institute for the History of Music » and the « Centre of Popular Music », at the same time promoting the activities of the National Association of Italian String Instrumentalists.

The advanced courses are for persons who have already obtained a diploma and enable younger generations to be trained to a high degree as well as benefit from the privileges that the Academy enjoys. One of these great privileges is the high standard of teaching that can be offered to those who have already completed their basic studies and who are suitable condidates for a musical career. The courses are also frequented by foreigners from all over the world, attracted by the fame of the Academy and the great names of Ildobrando Pizzetti (musical composition), Fernando Previtali (conducting), Carlo Zecchi (piano), Gioconda De Vito (violin), Enrico Mainardi (violincello), Arturo Bonucci (general musical theory) and earlier by the late Bernardino Molinari (conducting), Alfredo Casella (piano), Arrigo Serato (violin) and Ada Ruata Sassoli (harp).

Through the Permanent Commission for Letters, the Academy is able to give composers of Italian nationality a chance of presenting their works each year and a choice is made of those suitable for execution during concerts. It also organizes and promotes national and world contests, one of the most successful being the International Contest for Conductors, held in 1956. The Academy has strengthened its relations with UNESCO, the International Musical Archives at Genova and the Congress Library at Washington, organized series of lectures on its own premises in order to widen the musical culture of the public, undertaken the publication of various magazines and booklets, including the Year Book which, apart from describing the activities of the Academy, contains essays of great value, and produced the periodical « Santa Cecilia » which illustrates the objectives of the training given and particulars of the concert seasons arranged.

FLOWER GROWING

Value of Product and Exports.

Flower growing is gradually assuming more and more importance in Italy and larger areas are being put into production as demand grows. The generally favourable situation has been influenced by a constant improvement in living standards and a gradual evolution in custom, two factors that have led to higher consumption of items that were once considered to be in the luxury category and, in the case of flowers in particular, accessible to a restricted number of people. As a consequence, the idea that this branch of agriculture is of a very modest nature and of little importance is gradually changing. Although flower growing does not hold a high position in the Italian agricultural balance at the present time, it plays a fundamental role in certain localities where climate and soil conditions are suitable (1). Furthermore, it is a business that requires a large number of highly specialized persons and this, to some extent, explains why it has remained in the hands of families with a farming background.

Flower growing is still a source of prosperity in those localities that have become the traditional centres of this industry such as, for example, the slopes along the Ligurian riviera. Large-scale emigration from southern Italy, Calabria in particular, has brought prosperity to an area that was once abandoned.

Table I shows areas under cultivation during the past agricultural year, divided as follows: cut flowers, ornamental plants and plants grown for perfume. A total of 12,300 hectares (1 hectare = 2.5 acres) is divided into 7,443 hectares for special and the more common varieties of flowers and 2,927 and 1,930 hectares respectively for plants for perfume and ornamental varieties. Liguria heads the list of flower growing regions with 4,706 hectares under cultivation, followed by Piedmont with 2,565 hectares and Latium with 1,453 hectares. Sicily, Tuscany and the other Italian regions follow at some distance with the exception of the Val d'Aosta, Trentino-Alto Adige and Basilicata which statistics do not include as flower-growing areas. It may be noted that cut fluowers and ornamental plants are the more important items in Liguria, Latium and Tuscany while plants for perfume are chiefly grown in Piedmont, Sicily and Calabria.

(1) See also *Flower Growing*, « Italian Affairs » - Vol. IX, No. 3/4, pp. 3137-3134.

Table I - Flower Growing - Area under Cultivation in 1959/60

(*hectares*)

REGION	Cut Flowers		Ornamental Plants		Plants for Perfume		Total		
	Special	Non-special	Special	Non-special	Special	Non-special	Special	Grown in Hot-Houses	Non-special
Piedmont	99.85	454.85	69.75	369.20	470.00	1,075.00	639.60	24.50	1,926.05
Liguria	3,126.95	754.00	306.20	342.00	170.00	—	3,603.15	410.75	1,096.00
Lombardy	87.45	28.50	33.00	14.50	2.50	—	122.95	14.90	43.00
Venetia	90.30	28.00	81.60	10.00	21.00	8.00	192.90	6.80	46.00
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	43.10	7.45	3.50	7.55	—	—	46.60	4.11	15.00
Emilia-Romagna	85.95	85.20	17.20	26.20	2.50	0.50	105.65	5.95	111.90
Marches	8.76	—	2.80	1.70	2.00	—	13.56	0.07	1.70
Tuscany	515.90	74.00	216.20	13.50	1.00	38.00	733.10	5.50	125.50
Umbria	43.00	2.00	—	1.00	—	—	43.00	0.20	3.00
Latium	804.20	377.00	188.00	69.00	15.00	—	1,007.20	110.00	446.00
Campania	271.00	45.50	13.00	10.00	1.50	10.50	285.50	9.00	66.00
Abruzzi-Molise	15.75	3.50	—	—	—	—	15.75	0.40	3.50
Apulia	59.30	43.60	31.50	7.10	—	—	90.80	0.80	50.70
Calabria	31.55	7.20	3.70	1.00	236.00	18.00	271.25	—	26.20
Sicily	138.80	75.80	18.80	39.00	148.30	702.50	305.90	0.80	817.30
Sardinia	16.87	7.57	6.20	1.10	5.90	—	28.07	—	8.67
Italy	5,438.73	1,994.17	991.45	939.85	1,074.80	1,852.50	7,504.98	593.78	4,786.52

Table II - Flower Growing - Value of Sold and Unsold Product 1956-1960 per region

(*thousands of lire*)

REGION	Sold	Unsold	Total
Piedmont	788,231	90,430	878,661
Liguria	35,324.588	24,410	35,348,998
Lombardy	573,560	56,300	629,860
Venetia	197,473	3,220	200,693
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	79,550	5,270	84,820
Emilia-Romagna	152,947	23,315	176,262
Marches	20,914	1,580	22,494
Tuscany	2,563,796	13,895	2,577,691
Umbria	50,400	650	51,050
Latium	2,555,610	7,580	2,563,190
Campania	561,085	3,725	564,810
Abruzzi-Molise	24,732	—	24,732
Apulia	142,381	9,031	151,012
Calabria	385,579	63,434	449,013
Sicily	584,528	41,815	626,343
Sardinia	33,494	1,315	34,809
Italy	44,038,868	345,970	44,384,838

The information contained in Table 1 also reveals the high level of specialization reached by Italian growers, a clear sign of efficiency. There is a somewhat limited production of hot-house plants but, in the majority of cases, this is because the Italian climate permits outdoor growing of even some of the more exacting varieties. In fact, the climate in many regions has proved to be a valuable asset since it permits competition on foreign markets to be successfully met and has undoubtedly played an important role in this fast expanding sector.

Table III shows that exports of flowers and plants are high, both in quantity and value. During the course of the past five years, such exports have expanded sharply and values have tripled. Italy's biggest clients are the German Federal Republic, Switzerland, Sweden and Austria.

Table III - Flower and Plant Exports - 1956/1960

(*quantities in quintals - values in thousand lire*)

YEAR	Cut Flowers		Plants and other products		Total value of exports
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	
1956.....	28,295	3,724,067	36,997	3,981,874	7,705,941
1957.....	56,781	5,851,105	71,056	6,310,987	12,162,092
1958.....	57,425	6,700,344	73,265	7,135,119	13,835,463
1959.....	76,058	8,698,631	87,987	9,110,902	17,809,533
1960.....	97,891	11,438,249	137,715	12,285,540	23,723,789

As stated at the beginning, Italian flower growing still has great possibilities of expansion and much higher targets will be reached as soon as the market shows favourable conditions. When this happens, many advantages will be gained for certain of the southern regions of Italy which are very suitable to flower growing by virtue of climate and the ability of growers.

ITALIAN LINES

ITALIA

North and South America - Central America North and South Pacific

LLOYD TRIESTINO

Asia - Africa Australia

ADRIATICA

Egypt Israel - Lebanon - Syria - Cyprus - Turkey Black Sea - Greece

TIRRENIA

Libya Tunis - Sicily - Sardinia - Corsica - Malta - Marseilles
Spain - Northern Europe

FOOD PRICES

Price Variations between 1861 and 1960. Interdependence of Social and Economic Factors.

How much do Italians spend on food? How much did they spend ten, fifty, one hundred years ago? Any reply to such questions first calls for a fairly precise idea of the price variations that have partially influenced consumption and which have been, at the same time, the cause and effect of an undeniable improvement in the conditions prevalent in Italy over the past century. The interdependence of economic and social problems is such that, at times, it is extremely difficult to uncover the connection and relationship between one question that is examined and others that may have influenced it and, in turn, been influenced by yet other aspects. Undoubtedly, the cost of foodstuffs, although sometimes limited by consumption and by innumerable national, world, human and meteorogical factors, is one of the factors that has the strongest influence on consumption.

The first thing is to discover what portion of income has been spent by Italians on food from 1861 to the present day (Table I). During the first twenty years following Italian unity, the Italian citizen generally spent more than half his total income on food, drink and luxuries excluded. Including drink and tobacco, expenditure rises to 67/70%. Later between 1880 and 1900, the percentage spent on food dropped to 46/48%, that portion concerning drink rose by 18/19% while expenditure on tobacco rose from 1.7% to 2.2/2.3%. A new progressive increase in expenditure on food is to be noted between 1900 and 1915 while, after the first world war, there was a return to a lower level (49%-45%). The five year period of the second world war witnessed an obvious rise to 60% (77% if drink and tobacco are included) since the search for food at any price forced Italians to deprive themselves of many other things. This was followed by a drop in the percentage quota, a sign of the gradual improvement in the living conditions of the population. It will be noted that, in latter years, drink figures less than during the earlier years of the past century while expenditure on tobacco has risen sharply.

Table I - Percentage Distribution of Private Expenditure in Italy. Five year averages

PERIOD	Food	Drink	Tobacco	Housing	Other goods and service	Total
1861–1865	52.1	14.2	2.0	6.3	25.4	100.0
1866–1870	50.7	15.4	1.6	5.9	26.4	100.0
1871–1875	52.4	16.0	1.7	5.1	24.8	100.0
1876–1880	52.7	15.8	1.7	5.8	24.0	100.0
1881–1885	47.9	19.4	2.0	7.1	23.6	100.0
1886–1890	47.8	18.9	2.2	7.8	23.3	100.0
1891–1895	46.8	18.5	2.3	8.2	24.8	100.0
1896–1900	46.3	19.0	2.2	8.5	24.0	100.0
1901–1905	49.8	14.8	2.1	8.5	24.8	100.0
1906–1910	50.8	12.6	2.1	7.7	26.8	100.0
1911–1915	51.1	13.0	2.2	7.9	25.8	100.0
1916–1920	48.7	18.4	1.6	4.0	27.3	100.0
1921–1925	49.3	13.7	3.0	4.9	29.1	100.0
1926–1930	49.6	10.4	3.3	6.4	30.3	100.0
1931–1935	47.2	7.6	4.2	9.7	31.3	100.0
1936–1940	45.4	6.8	3.4	10.3	34.1	100.0
1941–1945	60.6	13.4	1.7	2.6	21.7	100.0
1946–1950	51.8	6.9	3.9	1.1	36.4	100.0
1951–1955	47.0	6.4	4.3	2.4	39.9	100.0
1956–1960	46.5	7.5	4.4	5.9	35.7	100.0
1960	44.1	7.2	4.6	6.4	37.7	100.0

It is now time to examine (Table II) the prices of individual food items and observe the trends (1).

Starch foods, which have always been of the utmost importance in Italy, in all regions, have varied in price in relation to the variations in the purchase power of money. There was an upward trend for twenty years, followed by a gradual drop over the following thirty years. During the past fifty years there has again been a constant increase but the rhythm has varied according to the food product.

a) Bread - the price of 33 cents per kilogram in 1865 and 54 cents per kilogram in 1874 is the minimum and maximum over a period of 56 years (1861-1916) but there was a jump to 1 lire per kg. immediately after the first world war. During the 23 year period between 1931 and 1943, the minimum price was charged in 1935

(1) Since these are national averages over fairly long periods (ten and five years) there are marked differences from year to year. Even now, with great facilitation in trade and communications and the great attention that modern government gives to the food sector, average national prices for commodities may be far removed from the minimum and maximum levels over a certain period. The following are some examples for 1959: bread — average price per kg., Lire 118.6 — maximum Lire 160 (Bolzano), minimum Lire 83 (Benevento); dried beans — average price per kg., 196.2 — maximum Lire 322 (Reggio Emilia), minimum Lire 138 (Bergamo, Campobasso).

Table II - Average Retail Prices of certain food commodities in lire values of period

(Ten year averages to 1940, five year averages from 1941 onwards - Prices per kilogram unless otherwise indicated)

PERIOD	Bread	Wheat Paste	Rice	Dried Beans	Potatoes	Beef	Pork	Salame	Eggs- each
1861–1870	0.39	0.57	0.42	0.21	0.13	0.93	1.26	...	0.06
1871–1880	0.48	0.72	0.55	0.31	1.17	1.21	1.57	...	0.08
1881–1890	0.38	0.55	0.50	0.32	0.14	1.30	1.69	...	0.08
1891–1900	0.37	0.50	0.51	0.29	0.12	1.38	1.54	2.47	0.08
1901–1910	0.36	0.50	0.48	0.34	0.15	1.45	1.77	2.82	0.09
1911–1920	0.53	0.78	0.73	1.10	0.33	4.22	5.99	8.33	0.27
1921–1930	1.82	2.62	2.20	2.45	0.87	11.82	11.48	20.86	0.64
1931–1940	1.71	2.36	1.64	1.95	0.65	9.57	9.52	16.82	0.48
1941–1945	8.69	14.88	23.98	34.11	11.49	110.23	...	244.0	8.43
1946–1950	79.60	120.2	148.3	144.6	40.40	700.2	782.3	1,280	30.00
1951–1955	104.8	152.8	127.2	167.0	44.80	915.0	872.8	1,463	34.00
1956–1960	108.5	160.6	131.4	151.5	47.58	1,087	1,076	1,527	33.25

PERIOD	Milk per litre	Butter	Lard	Other Fats	Olive Oil per litre	Wine per litre	Roasted Coffee	Sugar
1861–1870	0.24	2.47	1.70	...	1.37	0.62	2.17	1.33
1871–1880	0.29	3.10	2.06	...	1.46	0.65	3.50	1.43
1881–1890	0.31	2.85	1.94	...	1.36	0.59	3.42	1.51
1891–1900	0.28	2.79	1.73	...	1.35	0.51	4.19	1.55
1901–1910	0.28	2.92	1.77	1.80	1.46	0.46	3.35	1.47
1911–1920	0.60	6.69	4.50	4.79	3.64	1.15	7.96	2.75
1921–1930	1.57	19.33	10.39	9.56	9.12	2.41	29.09	6.82
1931–1940	1.16	14.16	8.35	7.50	6.82	1.86	32.27	6.50
1941–1945	9.28	237.7	185.9	...	116.9	21.80	...	73.87
1946–1950	64.40	1,145	614.2	626.5	506.4	95.20	1,307	327.2
1951–1955	76.40	1,177	503.0	466.0	500.4	110.8	1,931	263.4
1956–1960	79.91	1,174	564.9	542.9	695.0	136.4	2,363	249.2

N.B.: Dots indicate lack of data. Numbers in italics are partial averages.

(1.38 lire per kg.) and the maximum price in 1926 (2.5 lire). Since 1944 there has been an uninterrupted rise.

b) Wheat pastes - prices have oscillated from 90 cents in 1874 to 46 cents in 1904, from 3.42 lire in 1926 to 2.07 lire in 1934, but showing a constant upward trend since the second world war.

c) Rice - this product reveals many variations, even in relation to seasonal climate. Minimum prices were registered during the period 1861-1915 with 0.38 lire in 1863 and 0.37 lire in 1870 and maximum prices of 0.59 lire in 1876 and 1877. Over 1921-1943, minimum prices were registered in 1931 with 1.33 lire per kg. and maximum in 1926 with 3.42 lire per kg.

Table III - Average Retail Prices of certain Food Commodities expressed in values based on the cost of living index

(1960 Lire Values per kg. unless otherwise stated)

PERIOD	Bread	Wheat Paste	Rice	Dried Beans	Potatoes	Beef	Pork	Salame	Eggs-each
1861–1870	144	211	155	78	48	344	466	...	22
1871–1880	152	228	174	98	54	382	528	...	25
1881–1890	127	183	166	107	47	433	563	...	27
1891–1900	123	166	169	96	40	458	511	820	27
1901–1910	115	160	154	109	48	464	577	902	29
1911–1920	114	168	158	238	71	912	1,294	2,441	45
1921–1930	124	178	150	167	59	804	771	1,418	44
1931–1940	130	179	125	148	49	727	724	1,278	36
1941–1945	217	372	599	853	287	2,560	...	6,100	209
1946–1950	130	196	242	236	66	1,141	1,275	2,086	49
1951–1955	127	185	154	202	54	1,107	1,056	1,779	41
1956–1960	113	167	137	158	49	1,130	1,199	1,588	34

PERIOD	Milk per litre	Butter	Lard	Other Fats	Olive Oil (litre)	Wine (litre)	Roasted Coffee	Sugar
1861–1870	89	891	629	...	507	229	803	492
1871–1880	92	980	651	...	461	201	1,106	452
1881–1890	103	949	646	...	453	196	1,069	503
1891–1900	93	926	574	...	448	169	1,391	515
1901–1910	90	935	577	576	467	147	1,072	471
1911–1920	130	1,445	972	1,035	786	248	1,719	594
1921–1930	108	1,314	707	650	620	164	1,978	464
1931–1940	88	1,076	635	560	518	143	2,453	494
1941–1945	232	5,942	4,647	...	2,922	545	...	1,874
1946–1950	105	1,866	1,001	1,021	825	155	2,130	533
1951–1955	92	1,424	684	609	606	134	2,337	319
1956–1960	83	1,221	587	565	722	142	2,458	*059*

N.B.: Dots indicate lack of data. Numbers in italics are partial averages.

d) Potatoes - prices have varied strongly. The average was 11 cents in 1863, 1864, 1869, 1870, 1875 and 1894 and 10 cents in 1893 but this rose to 20 cents in 1873, 1874, 1877, 1879, 1880 and 1911. A minimum price was reached in 1933 (0.46 lire) and a maximum, prior to the second world war, in 1926 (0.96 lire).

e) Dried beans - a common and widely consumed product in Italy. They cost 18 cents per kg. in 1865, 40 in 1880, 44 in 1913-1914, 4.36 in 1929 and 1.08 in 1934.

f) Beef - all qualities cost an average of 84 cents per kg. in 1862, 1.9 lire in 1912, 13.73 lire in 1926 and 7.86 lire in 1934. The price of pork is slightly higher and almost double that of salame.

g) Eggs - these cost 6/8 cents up to 1901, from 9 to 11 cents between 1902 and 1913, 73 cents in 1926, 40 cents and less between 1933 and 1935.

Examining the table it will be found that, with rare exceptions, the prices of foodstuffs followed a fairly similar pattern up to the second world war, following which the rise has been rapid and parallel.

* * *

However, the figures do not reveal a great deal in themselves when expressed without any reference to the value of the lira over the past hundred years. A better picture is obtained from Table III in which the average prices are expressed in 1960 lire values. This table shows, for example, that bread was more expensive 80/100 years ago that at present. The same may be said for wheat paste, rice, lard, wine and sugar (the latter in particular). Sugar, in fact, has dropped considerably in price over the past fifteen years, 533 lire per kg. in 1946-50 (slightly above the average price for 1861-1940), 318 lire in 1951-55, 259 lire in 1956-60 and less than 200 lire at the present time.

The price of dried beans has risen sharply and, over the past five years, has been about double the 1861-70 level. A similar trend is shown for meat (increases of 147% for beef and 175% for pork since the beginning of the century), butter, coffee and olive oil (the latter item has been much influenced by unsatisfactory harvests in the post war period).

In spite of many oscillations, the prices of potatoes (a strong contraction in the last 15 years), milk and lard have remained constant.

The first world war caused a marked rise in the cost of certain foodstuffs added to the official rations (dried vegetables, potatoes, milk, grapes and wine) and other products which became scarce (meat, vegetable and animal fats and sugar). The second world war, which caused great difficulties in the obtaining of food supplies and brought about widespread destruction, an exodus from the rural districts and shrinking of livestock, led to an indiscriminate and sharp rise in the prices of all food commodities, none excepted, reaching levels never dreamed of before (beans - 853 lire per kg., potaties - 287 lire, meat - 2,500 per kg., salame - over 6,000 lire, eggs - 200 lire each, milk - 232 lire per litre, butter - 6,000 lire per kg., lard - 4,647 lire per kg., olive oil - approximately 3,000 lire per litre, sugar - 2,000 lire per kg.

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POLITICAL CALENDAR

NOVEMBER 1961

4. - Celebrations marking the first centenary of Italian unity close today with a special Armistice Day service at the tomb of the Unknown Soldier in Rome. This service is held in the presence of the President of the Republic, State officials, representatives of the Armed Forces and members of ex-servicemen's associations.

— The Prime Minister, the Hon. Amintore Fanfani, addresses the nation in a special message broadcast over the radio and television networks.

— The President of the Republic receives a delegation of Italian ex-servicemen now resident in Argentina and other nations of Latin America.

5. - The Prime Minister meets the Austrian Chancellor, Dr. Gorbach, at Palazzo Chigi.

6. - The Italian Cabinet drafts a legislative programme to inform Parliament of the more important questions to be debated and approves several draft Bills, including one that concerns modifications to communal and provincial laws.

9. - The Foreign Minister, Signor Antonio Segni, concluding the debate on the nuclear experiments carried out by the Soviet Union, repeats Italian protests over the new series of explosions and stresses that Italy is determined to follow a policy of peace and freedom.

10. - The President of the Republic receives the Prime Minister, the Hon. Amintore Fanfani, and the Foreign Minister, the Hon. Antonio Segni.

— The Minister for Foreign Affairs meets the Danish Minister of Agriculture, Mr. Carl Hansen Skyne.

— The Minister of Agriculture, the Hon. Mariano Rumor, meets the ministers of Agriculture of Canada, Denmark and Tunisia to discuss general problems on the occasion of the opening of the 13th. session of the F.A.O. general conference.

11. - The Minister of Public Works, opening the new Venice-Padua highway, draws attention to Government efforts to improve communications as a means of furthering economic development.

13. - The President of the Republic visits Pisa for the opening of the 618th. academic year of the University. The President expresses his great interest in the electronic computor installed in the University for scientific research purposes. During the course of today's ceremonies, the President confers various awards on persons who have distinguished themselves in teaching, art and culture.

— The Minister of the Interior, the Hon. Mario Scelba, meets the Minister of the Interior of the Republic of Somalia, Mr. Abdirazak Hagi Hussein.

14. - The Prime Minister, Signor Amintore Fanfani, receives the Egyptian Minister for Culture, Mr. Ocascia, at Palazzo Chigi.

— The Minister for Industry and Trade, the Hon. Emilio Colombo, meets the Minister for Natural Resources of British Guiana, Mr. Brindley H. Benn.

16. - The Government and Parliament express the nation's regrets at the killing of 13 Italians in Congo.

18. - The President of the Republic receives the Hon. Arthur Conte, President of the Western European Union.

21. - The Prime Minister meets the Minister of Defence, the Hon. Giulio Andreotti, the Undersecretary for Foreign Affairs, the Hon. Carlo Russo and the Chief of Staff (Air) to discuss preliminary evidence concerning the killing of thirteen Italians in Congo.

— The Minister for Foreign Trade, the Hon. Mario Martinelli, receives a Korean economic delegation, headed by the Minister for Industry and Trade, Mr. Yung Nae Hiul, now in Italy for

talks with Italian leaders and visits to various Italian industrial plants.

— The President of the Republic receives a Soviet parliamentary delegation headed by the Vice-President of the Supreme Soviet, Mr. Bajan.

— The Undersecretary for Emigration (Foreign Affairs Department), the Hon. Ferdinando Storchi, attends a meeting of Italian consuls in Belgium. Held at the Italian Embassy in Brussels, the talks concern Italian emigrants in Belgium and their families.

22. - The Italian Cabinet examines problems relative to continued Italian participation in U.N. action in the Congo.

23. - A special service commemorating the Italians killed in the Congo is held in the Basilica of Santa Maria degli Angeli and attended by the President of the Republic, the Prime Minister, members of the Government and representatives of Parliament.

— The Minister of Defence, the Hon. Giulio Andreotti, accompanied by the Chief of the Air Staff, General le Remondino, arrive at Leopoldville to meet the Congo Prime Minister, Adula, and representatives of the U.N. mission to discuss the terms of Italian collaboration.

— The Minister for Foreign Trade, the Hon. Mario Martinelli and the Tunisian Minister for Planning and Finance, Mr. Ahmed Ben Salah, sign trade and economic and technical assistance agreements.

24. - The Prime Minister meets the Minister for Economy of the Republic of Argentina, Dr. Robert Alemann, at Palazzo Chigi.

— The Undersecretary for Migration, the Hon. Ferdinando Storchi, meets the Dutch Minister for Social Security, Mrs. Klompe, and the Dutch Undersecretary for Labour, Mr. Rolvink, at the Hague to discuss matters concerning Italian emigrants in Holland.

25. - The Minister for Foreign Affairs, the Hon. Antonio Segni, informs the Prime Minister of the action undertaken by the Italian delegation to the United Nations relative to the Austrian appeal over the execution of the De Gasperi-Gruber Agreement.

— The President of the Republic visits Milan to inaugurate the premises of the Association of Science and Technology. He also visits the Book Fair and the new Students' College at Milan University.

— Local elections are held in 106 Communes and Provincial towns.

26. - The President of the Republic attends the unveiling of the monument to war dead at Parma.

28. - The Minister of Defence informs the President of the Republic and the Prime Minister of the results of his visit to the Congo.

30. - The President of the Republic receives the Prime Minister at the Quirinal.

— The Italo-Moroccan Commission at Rabat concludes its 3rd. meeting. The Minister for Economy and Finance of Morocco illustrates the results achieved and expresses the satisfaction of his Government.

DECEMBER 1961

2. - The Committee of Minister for Southern Italy approve further aid for industrial development.

3. - The Prime Minister is guest of honour at the Press Club in Milan and is awarded the « Bruno Rezzara » Prize for his book « Italian Economy from 1861 to 1961 ». The Prime Minister also inaugurates a new thermo-electric power station at Cassano d'Adda.

— The Minister for Foreign Affairs, Signor Antonio Segni, sends a radio message to Italians resident abroad on the occasion of « Emigrants' Day ».

4. - The Italian Prime Minister attends ceremonies marking the feast of Santa Barbara at Metanopoli and visits the E.N.I. (National Hydrocarbons Agency) plant at S. Donato Milanese.

8. - The Prime Minister, the Hon.

Amintore Fanfani, inaugurates various public works in Umbria and observes that all regions must take part in the economic development of the nation. He also calls attention to the Government's determination that Central Italy play a more decisive role in progress.

9. - The Foreign Minister receives the Polish Ambassador, Mr. Adam Zillmann to discuss the institution of an Italo-Polish joint commission to draft a cultural agreement between the two countries.

12. - The Foreign Minister meets the U.S. Secretary of State, Mr. Dean Rusk, in Paris for an exchange of views on world affairs discussed by the Atlantic Council.

13. - The Minister for Foreign Trade, the Hon. Mario Martinelli, attends « Italy Day » ceremonies at the New Delhi World Industrial Fair.

18. - The Cabinet approves a draft Bill executing the cultural agreement between Italy and Argentina which includes a clause on reciprocal recognition of academic titles.

19. - The President of the Republic hands the « Gold Pen » and « Gold Book » awards, instituted by the Presidency of the Council of Ministers, to Bruno Nardi and the Zanichelli Publishing House.

— A meeting is held at the Ministry of the Budget to discuss a long-term plan for unemployed persons. Held under the chairmanship of the Minister of the Budget, the Hon. Giuseppe Pella, the meeting is attended by representatives of the Government, labour associations and employers.

20. - The Italian Cabinet approves various provisions including those relative to labour agreements and appointments and promotions in the Civil Service.

— The Minister for State Participations, the Hon. Bo, attends the laying of the corner stone of a new industrial plant (« Officina Meccaniche Calabresi » - OMECA) to be built in the Gebbione Torre del Lupo locality (Reggio Calabria). The plant is being constructed under the Government programme for development of the southern regions of Italy.

— The Minister of the Budget, the Hon. Giuseppe Pella, speaking on the television network, illustrates economic expansion in Italy and the prospects for the next ten years.

— The Ministry of Defence and the National Research Council sign an agreement covering collaboration in scientific research and the recognition of new discoveries.

— An Italo-Polish trade agreement is signed at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

21. - The President of the Republic, the Hon. Giovanni Gronchi, pays official visits to the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies to exchange good wishes for Xmas and the New Year.

— The Minister for Foreign Affairs sends Xmas and New Year greeting to Italians resident abroad during a special radio broadcast.

— The President of the Republic receives members of the diplomatic corps at the Quirinal.

22. - The Prime Minister visits the Speakers of the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies to express the good wishes of the Government for Xmas and the New Year.

— The Minister for Foreign Trade, the Hon. Mario Martinelli, receives the Secretary of State of the Republic of Argentina, Mr. Vincente Branca, who describes his Government's energy and fuel programme in which Italian industry is playing an important role.

23. - The Prime Minister receives the Chairman of the National Council for Economy and Labour, the Hon. Pietro Campilli and the Chairman of the Senior Council for Agriculture, who hand him the final Report of the National Conference on Agriculture and the Rural World.

28. - The Prime Minister meets the competent ministers to discuss the various problems of the European Economic Community to be discussed during the forthcoming meeting at Brussels.

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Trieste – See: **Policy (Foreign)**

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NOTE

To avoid any erroneous interpretation of the article "The I.R.I. Group", published in "Italian Affairs" o. (X-2), March-April 1962, page 3451, paragraph 3, the sentence "The following is a detailed list of the mpanies controlled by I.R.I." should read "The following is a detailed list of the companies in which R.I. holds shares". In actual fact, shares may possibly amount to but a small part of the capital as, for ample "Montecatini S. p. A.", in which I.R.I. holds but 7.3 %.